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**MODERATING EFFECT OF CULTURE ON THE RELATIONSHIP
BETWEEN ENTREPRENEURIAL COMPETENCIES,
ENTREPRENEURIAL ORIENTATION AND WOMEN
ENTREPRENEURS' BUSINESS SUCCESS IN NORTH-WESTERN
NIGERIA**

SALAUDEEN NURAINI HASHIMU



**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
UNIVERSITI UTARA MALAYSIA
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Title Page

MODERATING EFFECT OF CULTURE ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ENTREPRENEURIAL COMPETENCIES, ENTREPRENEURIAL ORIENTATION AND WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS' BUSINESS SUCCESS IN NORTH-WESTERN NIGERIA

SALAUDEEN NURAINI HASHIMU



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Universiti Utara Malaysia

**A Thesis submitted to Othman Yeop Abdullah Graduate School of Business
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in fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy**



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Abstrak

Pengendalian perniagaan milik wanita di Nigeria digambarkan dengan kadar kegagalan yang tinggi walaupun mendapat sokongan daripada pentadbiran sebelum ini. Kajian ini dijalankan berdasarkan teori berkembar asas mikro Pandangan Berasaskan Sumber (RBV) dan teori Kontigensi untuk mengkaji secara empirikal kesan penyederhanaan budaya terhadap hubungan antara kecekapan keusahawanan dan orientasi keusahawanan individu ke atas kejayaan usahawan wanita. Dengan menggunakan pendekatan kuantitatif, data diperolehi daripada sampel 361 orang usahawan mikro wanita menggunakan borang soal selidik. Data dianalisis menggunakan teknik *Partial Least Squares* (PLS-SEM) untuk mengkaji hubungan hipotesis dan dapatan menunjukkan kecekapan keusahawanan mempunyai hubungan yang signifikan dan positif terhadap kejayaan usahawan wanita, manakala hubungan budaya didapati negatif dan signifikan. Walau bagaimanapun, hubungan antara orientasi keusahawanan individu dan kejayaan usahawan wanita juga tidak signifikan. Pada masa yang sama, budaya didapati menjadi penyederhana dalam hubungan antara kecekapan keusahawanan dan kejayaan usahawan wanita, sementara interaksinya dengan orientasi keusahawanan individu tidak disokong. Hasil kajian menunjukkan bagaimana model reflektif-formatif bagi konstruk peringkat tertinggi (HOC) diuji, dan ini merupakan amalan luar biasa dalam literatur terkini bidang keusahawanan. Secara keseluruhannya, dapatan kajian mendedahkan kepentingan kecekapan keusahawanan untuk mencapai kejayaan keusahawanan wanita, dan mencadangkan keperluan untuk membangunkan orientasi keusahawanan individu dalam kalangan usahawan wanita. Di samping itu, kajian juga menegaskan keperluan untuk membangunkan budaya keusahawanan dalam kalangan usahawan wanita melalui dasar pendidikan kebangsaan, latihan, perantisan, dan penyertaan aktif dalam usaha ekonomi negara. Tidak dapat dinafikan bahawa hasil kajian ini menyumbang kepada kajian literatur keusahawanan wanita dengan menguraikan konsep kejayaan wanita dalam perniagaan, menekankan kepentingan keupayaan manusia dan pengaruh budaya terhadap usahawan wanita.

Kata kunci: kecekapan keusahawanan, orientasi keusahawanan individu, budaya, kejayaan usahawan wanita

Abstract

The operation of women-owned businesses in Nigeria have been characterised by high rates of failure, despite the supports received from the successive governments. This study draws upon the twin theories of Microfoundations of the Resource-Based View (RBV) and Contingency Theory, to empirically examine the moderating effect of culture on the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and individual entrepreneurial orientation on the women entrepreneurs' business success. Using a quantitative approach, data were obtained from a sample of 361 women micro-entrepreneurs through questionnaire survey. *Partial Least Squares* (PLS-SEM) technique of data analysis was employed to test the hypothesized relationships and findings showed that entrepreneurial competencies have a significant and positive relationship on the women entrepreneurs' business success, whereas its relationship with culture was found to be negative and significant. However, the relationship between individual entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' success was also not significant. Similarly, culture was found to moderate the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneur's success, whereas its interaction with individual entrepreneurial orientation was not supported. The study further illustrates on how the reflective-formative model of higher order construct (HOC) is tested, which is an uncommon practice in the current literature of entrepreneurship. On the whole, the findings reveal the importance of entrepreneurial competencies in achieving women entrepreneurs' success and suggest on the need to develop the individual entrepreneurial orientation of the women entrepreneurs. Additionally, it stressed on the need to develop the culture of entrepreneurship among the women entrepreneurs through national education policy, training, apprenticeships, and active participation in economic ventures. These findings have no doubt contribute to the mainstream of women entrepreneurship literature by expounding the female conception of success in business, highlighting the importance of human capabilities, and the influence wield by culture on the women entrepreneurs.

Keywords: entrepreneurial competencies, individual entrepreneurial orientation, culture, women entrepreneurs' success

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List of Abbreviations

AMOS	Analysis of a Moment Structures.
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
BLRW	Better Life for Rural Women
BOA	Bank of Agriculture
BOI	Bank of Industry
BoP	Base of Economic Pyramid
CBN	Central Bank of Nigeria
CB-SEM	Covariance-Based Structural Equation Modeling
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CEOs	Chief Executive Officers
CEP	Corpers Entrepreneurial Programme
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CI	Condition Index
CMV	Common Method Variance
COWAN	Country Women Association of Nigeria
CR/P _c	Composite Reliability
CVSCALE	Individual Cultural Value Scale
D ²	Mahalanobis distance
DV	Dependent Variables
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EO	Entrepreneurial Orientation
f^2	Effect-Size
FEAP	Family Economic Advancement Programmme

FMWA & SD	Federal Ministry of Women affairs and Social Development
FSP	Family Support Program
GEM	Global Entrepreneurship monitor
GJLS	Graduate Job Creation Loan Scheme
GLOBE	Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness
GMRG	Global Manufacturing Research Group
GSCA	Generalized Structured Component Analysis
HDSL	Hambantota District of Sri Lanka
HLVM	Hierarchical Latent Variable Model
HOC	Higher Order Construct
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IDC	Industrial Development Centers
IEO	Individual Entrepreneurial Orientation
ILO	International Labor Organization
IPMA	Importance-Performance Matrix Analysis
IV	Independent Variables
LISREL	Linear Structural Relations
LPOs	Large Private Organizations
MAP	Mandatory Attachment Programme
MOFI	Ministry of Finance Incorporated
MPS	Matured Peoples Scheme
MSME	Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises

MSMEDF	Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises Development Fund
NACRDB	Nigeria Agricultural, Cooperative, and Rural Development bank
NAPEP	National Poverty Eradication Programme
NBCI	Nigeria Bank for Commerce and Industry
NCE	National Council on Education
NCW	National Commission for Women
NDE	National Directorate of Employment
NDIB	Nigerian Industrial development bank
NERFUND	National Economic Reconstruction Fund
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organizations
NWBC	National Womens Business Council
NYSC	National Youth Service Corps
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
PAMA	Promotion of Agricultural and Manufacturing Activities
PBN	Peoples Bank of Nigeria
PCA	Principal Component Analysis
PLS	Partial Least Square
PSSE	Promotion of Small-Scale Enterprises
Q^2	Predictive Relevance
R^2	R-square
RBT	Resource Based Theory

SCA	Sustained Competitive Advantage
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SMEDAN	Small and Medium Enterprises Development Agency of Nigeria.
SMEEIS	Small and Medium Enterprises equity Investment Scheme
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
SSICS	Small Scale Industries Credit Scheme
TQM	Total Quality Management
U.S	United States
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
VIF	Variance Inflated Factor
VSM	Value Survey Module
WE	Women Education
WED	Women Entrepreneurship Development
X ²	Chi-square

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

The concept of entrepreneurship has often been equated with the term ownership and management of small businesses (Shane, 2008). Hence, its emergence as a vital element in the theory of economic development (Feldman, 2014; Schumpeter, 1934), has makes it the largest business sector in most of the economies the world (Ogidi, 2014). While there exists no generic definition of the term entrepreneurship in literature (Sommer & Haug, 2011), it has essentially been conceived as an opportunistic determination of the entrepreneurial tendencies, which involves the acts of taking risks, innovating and creating values (Huarng & Yu, 2011).

Nevertheless, entrepreneurship has provided support for the emergence and growth of small and medium businesses (United Nations, 2006), which has in turn, becomes the largest business sector of the world's economy (Culkin & Smith, 2000). Small and medium business serves as a veritable engine of economic growth and development (Iorun, 2014), as they help the economies in the areas of attaining its national objectives, most especially, in the area of generating revenue, creating employment, and alleviating poverty (Agwu & Emeti, 2014, Kanayo, 2014).

Entrepreneurship as a concept, has emerged from the entrepreneurial venture drive orientation of an individual (Wiklund & Shepherd, 2005a). It covers the several processes, which are involved in the revitalization of market offerings, innovation, risk

taking and creation of new and uncertain products, services, or markets (Wiklund & Shepherd, 2005a). Entrepreneurship allows for proactiveness in the exploration of new or fresh business opportunities, especially, those in areas where other competitors are yet to identify or are underexploited, by helping to fashion out new set of resources necessary to exploit them (Ho, Fang, & Lin, 2011; Wiklund & Shepherd, 2005a).

However, it is the importance of entrepreneurship in integrating people from varying and diverse backgrounds, which brought to the limelight, the significant role of women to the forefront of economic development (United Nation, 2006). Women folks have been noted to have substantially contribute to the development and growth of the national economies, both in the developed and developing countries, through their participation in business start-ups, and in the growth of small and medium businesses (United Nation, 2006). However, this crucial and dynamic role of women in the economic life of every society were owed to their creative ability, and the easiness with which they are able adapt to changes (Ayogu & Agu, 2015). This unique attribute has therefore, made women to be designated as engines of growth and the rising stars of the economies of developing nations, which brings in welfare and prosperity (Vossenberg, 2013).

Confirming the substantial impacts of women on the national economy, most of which has featured in the areas of startup participation, growth and survival of small and medium businesses, the Global Entrepreneurship Monitors (2005) reports across the 37 GEM countries, reveals that women have participated in diverse entrepreneurial activities, majority of which focused on the areas of establishing new enterprises for the purpose of jobs and wealth creation. Substantiating this GEM's (2005) report, the

United Nations (2006) also asserted that the women entrepreneurial role of acting as an agent in the labor market, especially in the areas of employment generation, wealth creation, resource provision, and poverty alleviation, has help tremendously towards increasing the number of women-owned entrepreneurial ventures around the world.

However, this emergent of women in the global entrepreneurial scene and their operations have been plagued with so many challenges, which has led to high rates of failure and poor level of performances (Jocumsen, 2004). These failure rates were captured in a global business review, which reports that about 20 percent of young businesses established fails within the first year of operation, and with this rate of failure expected to grow to about 66 percent by the end of the sixth year of their existence (Franco & Haase, 2010).

Additionally, Driessen and Zwart (2007) report that about 50 percent of new businesses goes into extinction within the first five years of their existence owing to their inability to survive competitiveness in their business environment. To further substantiate this assertion of high rate of business mortality, Amiri, Zali and Majd (2009), report that only 10 percent of the total businesses established in Iran were successful, with several of them failing, even before they were launched.

Confirming of the above global reports on small and micro business failures, reports on the sub-saharan African country of Nigeria, reveals that most businesses established failed within the first five years of existence, with a smaller percentage of them going into extinction within the sixth to tenth years of establishment, while only about 5 to 10

percent of these businesses, survives, thrives, and grow into maturity (Aremu & Adeyemi, 2011).

However, in the recent years, this failure rates have been reported to have risen to about 80 percent due to lack of finances (Akinfe, 2014), with the performances of women business owners falling below expectation. Nevertheless, this high failure rate of women entrepreneurs, relative to that of their men counterpart, have been partly attributed to the restrictions of women by certain environmental factors, which has more often than not, limits their chances of taking advantage of the existing business opportunities in their environment, and eventually resulting in their failure (Mayoux, 2001).

Substantiating this above assertion, Ayogu and Agu (2015) argued that, women entrepreneurs in Nigeria are constrained by numerous socio-cultural challenges, which has contributed to their failure. Some of these identified challenges ranged from governmental regulations, limited access to finance, poor access to information technology, family dependence, lack of access to control property, and managerial incompetency, to restrictions to the family businesses, with minimum leadership role (Agwu & Emeti, 2014; Chancharat, 2011). All these problems were reported to have impeded women entrepreneurial development, and eventually culminating into their failure.

Additionally, Basil (2005) identifies some institutional factors, such as, inadequate capital, erratic power supply, poor infrastructure, as well as individual factors like poor market research, lack of focus, poor record and bookkeeping, poor business strategy, inability to differentiate between revenue from profit, and failure to separate business

and personal from finances, and engaging in cut-throat competition, as some of the causes of the premature death of most businesses in Nigeria.

Nevertheless, Rogers (2002) also attributed the high failure rates of business in Nigeria to the inefficiency, poor record keeping, technical problems/competency, lack of expertise in procurement, production, maintenance, finance, marketing, in addition to wrong decision-making by their owners. Attesting to this assertion, the report of an exploratory survey research on factors responsible for the failure of small business owners in Nigeria conducted by Vossenbergh (2013), reveals that factors such as, inadequate finances, lack of infrastructure, lack of management and training experience, poor record and book-keeping, coupled with other obstacles like, poor location, low demand for either products or services, poor market research, insufficient profit, and excessive withdrawal of cash for personal use, as among the major causes of their failure.

Recognizing the potential contributions of women, as an agent of change and development, through their economic and strategic roles, successive administration in Nigeria have continuously crafted various policies and programmes that would enhance the growth and development of women entrepreneurship in the country (Inyang & Enuoh, 2009).

However, in spite these growing number of initiatives and resources made available by the governments, in course of promoting and developing women entrepreneurship, they still constitute a minor in the pool of business owners (Shinnar, Giacomini, & Janssen, 2012), as most of the existing women entrepreneurs tend to be more of necessity

entrepreneurs (Bijaoui, 2012; Giacomini, et al., 2011; Orhan & Scott, 2001), who owns and managed fewer businesses, when compare to businesses owned and managed by their men counterpart. This has however, made the proceeds from their businesses to continue growing slower and slower, and eventually resulting in its ultimate failure (Vossenbergh, 2013). Turton and Herrington (2012) has found that men entrepreneurs often tend to be opportunity entrepreneurs, while the women entrepreneurs are, most often time, necessity entrepreneurs.

Furthermore, an entrepreneur's inability to manage and develop the business have also been attributed to be the major cause of the high rates of mortality among micro and small businesses (SEBRAE, 2005). It is therefore, on the account of this high mortality rate that Gibb (2005) contends that the success of any economic ventures, especially at micro or small levels of businesses is dependent on the entrepreneurial skills of the business owners. Hence, entrepreneurs must possess the ability to manage and sustain their enterprises by acquiring the requisite basic managerial skills of planning, organizing, leadership, communication and coordination, in addition to the entrepreneurial acumen of creativity and innovativeness, for them to become successful in their ventures. This therefore, underpins the major role of the entrepreneur as the main actor in emergence, growth, and survival of the enterprise.

1.2 Problem Statement

The high rate of business mortality among micro, small and medium enterprises in Nigeria has become a worrisome issue. This attracted the attention of many Nigerians, policy makers, researchers, stakeholders, and academicians alike (Ibru, 2013). So much

has this problem become an issue of concern for a country, which has been rated as the 26th largest world's economy (Gonzalez, 2014), and also having a vision of becoming one of the 20th largest economies in the world by the year 2020, only to be listed as one of the world's poorest countries because over 70% of its population lives in poverty owing to its low industrial output (Oyeku et al., 2014).

This scenario has made a one-time Director General of Small and Medium Enterprises Development Agency of Nigeria (SMEDAN), an agency responsible for the growth of SMEs to assert that Nigerian entrepreneurial scene is bedeviled with a lot of challenges. Some of the highlighted problems has ranged from managerial incompetency, poor marketing skills, inadequate financing, low entrepreneurial spirit, non-conducive business environment, fall in output level, as well as insecurity, to that of threat from globalization (Nadada, 2013).

Although, the women folk have been ascribed as being most resourceful and focused than their men counterpart (Alekhugie, 2014), but on the contrary, their activities in Nigeria have been plagued by high rate of failure. This high business failure rate has been attributed to several challenges, such as lack of education, mentorship, management, training skills, and sound business background confronting the women folks (Alekhugie). Coupled with these institutional obstacles is the psychological fear of failure, which often characterize the minds of every woman that launched a start-up. This fear has therefore, prevented them from taking risks, which is seen as an essential ingredient for successful entrepreneurship (Alekhugie, 2014).

As a panacea to mitigate against this high failure rate, successive past governments have evolve several policy thrusts and programmes, such as Better Life for Rural women (BLRW), Family Economic Advancement Programme (FEAP), Peoples Bank, and Country Women Association of Nigeria (COWAN), among others, to tackle the low pace of entrepreneurial activities, specifically, among the women folk. Some of these programmes were specifically, designed to promote the development of rural and cottage industries of businesses, through the provision of finances, infrastructure, training, raw material, technology, and marketing (Hammawa & Hashim, 2016; Sanusi, 2003). However, in spite of all these government and private sectors continuous efforts, the mortality rate of businesses still continues unabated. For instance, about 70 percent of micro, small and medium businesses, are reported to fail in the first three years of their operation (Akingbolu, 2010).

Additionally, Elemo (2013) has blamed the causes of high rate business failure among women entrepreneurs to the lopsided skills acquisition and training programmes provided by the Nigeria government, be it at the local, state or national level, to serve as a measure of economic empowerment. However, such programmes have been alleged to have place more emphasis on the technical aspect of training and skills acquisition to the neglect of the managerial component of entrepreneurship (Elemo, 2013). Consistent with this is a report by Agwu and Emeti (2014), who assert lack of managerial skills among business owners as one of the major challenges militating against the success of women business entrepreneurs in Nigeria.

Additionally, some scholars have identified culture as an impediment to the business success of women folks in Nigeria. The assertion holds true, especially in the case of

rural areas, and some other parts of the country, where the girl-child are denied equal access to education opportunity like their boy counterpart (Alekhugie, 2014). However, this deficiency in education and training, often affects the performances of female entrepreneurs in the later part of their lives, as they have neither the knowledge of running businesses, nor the ability to successfully carryout entrepreneurial activities in a competitive market environment (Alekhugie, 2014). This will eventually result to the failure of their ventures. Although, education has never been a mandatory prerequisite for a successful venture creation, however, its acquisition avails the entrepreneurs of the requisite skills and training, which serves the very critical and essential ingredients to successful entrepreneurship (Irene, 2016).

Although, entrepreneurship has evolved as a response to certain environmental conditions, which can either, help or thwart the pace of entrepreneurial success (Lee & Peterson, 2000), extant literature on entrepreneurship have shown that the differential in cultural values, which results from cross-cultural variations among individuals, exerts significant influence on the rates of individual entrepreneurial activities (Autio, Pathak, & Wennberg, 2013). This cultural variation has made Berger (1991) to view culture as a conductor and entrepreneur, as a catalyst in the study of entrepreneurship.

According to Mueller and Thomas (2001), the two important cultural forces that controls and directs human behavior are values and norms. Hence, differential in cultural values among individuals were seen as the extent to which some entrepreneurial behaviours, such as independent thinking and risk taking, which are often considered desirable in entrepreneurship, differs between different cultures (Hayton, Gerard, & Zahra, 2002). This cultural difference has therefore, suggests the extent at which some

cultures can easily align, more closely with entrepreneurial orientation, than the others (Mueller & Thomas, 2001).

On the basis of the influence of culture on entrepreneurial orientation, some researchers concluded that there exist little empirical studies on culture and entrepreneurial orientation (Covin & Miller, 2014). However, this existing empirical vacuum has offers a significant avenue for further research opportunity, which this present study is poised to investigate.

Consequently, culture have been reported to be at the heart of several human activities that often triggers entrepreneurial behaviour (Pearson & Chatterjee, 2001). This is because culture has been reputed to play an important role in the understanding of entrepreneurial behavior because entrepreneurship is bounded by it (Hayton et al, 2002). Hence, Hofstede (1991) have stressed on the importance of relating the individual cultural orientation to the individual outcomes, because individuals' cultural orientations have been found to play a significant role in the development of entrepreneurial competencies (Sajilan, & Tehseen, 2015).

Furthermore, our understanding of entrepreneurship has further been aided by the influence of culture. For instance, individual cultural values and beliefs affect the individual behaviours that influences entrepreneurial competencies (Chaiyabut, 2013). Hence, this study sets to examine the influence of cultural orientation on the individual behaviours that reflects entrepreneurial competencies.

In addition to the above cultural antecedents to the entrepreneurs' success is the barrier caused by the entrepreneur's gender. Women folks in Nigeria, as in many other

developing countries, are been victims of various gender-related barriers. This has manifested in several facets of their lives, such as, denial of access to finances, decision-making, restriction to mobility, and outright discriminations (Mahmood, et al., 2012). But while lack of access to finance has been the most widely perceived celebrated problem that plagues women entrepreneurs in Nigeria (Ayogu & Agu, 2015; Nadada, 2013; Basil, 2005), Inyang and Enuoh (2009), have decried this claim by calling for a paradigm shift in the reconsideration of the causes of business failure among women entrepreneurs.

In view of the above, the lack of entrepreneurial competencies among women entrepreneurs have been identified as one of the major causes of high business mortality in Nigeria. Therefore, a call for a re-focus on the critical success factors of entrepreneurial competencies as a panacea, have been advocated in order to stem the tide of high rate of business failure among the women folks (Inyang & Enuoh, 2009). Hence, entrepreneurial competencies have been seen as one essential and a very necessary ingredient in business development and success.

Similarly, a report by Jemi-Alade (2013) have attributed the major cause of business failure in Nigeria to the low entrepreneurial orientation among the women entrepreneurs. Consistent with these above two assertions on the causes of business failure among women entrepreneurs in Nigeria, Ogundeji (2014) attribute the absence of these twin human capabilities (i.e., entrepreneurial competencies and entrepreneurial orientation), in establishing and managing successful businesses, and environmental factor of uncertainty, which result from the harsh economic condition under which businesses operate, to be the major causes of high rates of business failure in Nigeria.

These above two assertions, attested to the fact that a large number of women population in Nigeria, have been driven into starting their own businesses out of mere necessity. That is, they are being influenced by the “push-factor” (Bijaoui, 2012; Giacomini, Janssen, Guyot, & Lohest, 2011; Orhan & Scott, 2001; Reynolds et al., 2001), in their drive to satisfy their basic survival needs, and that of their immediate families (Akinwumi, 2000). This act has however, make them to be mere business owners, as they lack the requisite individual capabilities of entrepreneurial competencies and entrepreneurial orientation, which makes for a successful entrepreneurship (Ogundeji, 2014).

However, the above notion of starting a business is totally in contrast to the decisions of most entrepreneurs in developed countries, where the “pull-factor” serves as the major factor that impel people to entrepreneurship. Specifically, the decisions by women to establish businesses have been noted to start involuntarily, basically, as means for subsistence, which is in contrast to what obtains in developed countries, where women go into businesses, only after due requisite feasibility study have been successful conducted (Rogerson, 2001).

On the notion of the above arguments, several researches have been conducted in extant literatures to establish relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and entrepreneurs’ success, but the findings from these studies were mixed. Some researchers have reported positive relationship, while some established negative relationship, with some even failing to establish any relationship at all, between the two constructs.

However, some of the scholarly articles in which significant and positive relationships were reported between the two constructs can be found in the scholarly works of researchers, such as, Suhaimi, Al Mamun, Zainol, and Nawi, (2018), Mamun (2016), Rahman, Amran, Ahmad, and Taghizadeh (2015), and Barazandeh, Parvizian, Alizadeh, and Khosravi (2015). Others are, Liyana & Jaafar (2013), Mitchelmore and Rowley (2013), Gerli, Gubitta, and Tognazzo (2011), Solesvik (2012), Ismail (2012), Ahmad, Ramayah, Wilson, & Kummerow (2010), Man, Lau, and Chan (2008), Georgellis, Joyce, and Woods (2000), McGee and Peterson (2000), Chandler and Hanks (1994), and Chandler and Jansen (1992).

Consequently, some studies in which no direct relationship was established between the two constructs are contained in the scholarly works of Sarwoko, Surachman, and Hadiwidjojo (2013), where competency was only found to mediate between entrepreneurial characteristics and business success. Others are the study of Ehigie and Umoren (2003), which reports a negative relationship between the two constructs, with that of Man, Lau, and Snape (2008) reporting both positive and negative relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and business success. These scholarly reports signify inconsistencies in findings between entrepreneurial competencies and business success and this therefore, calls for further investigation into the relationship.

Similarly, some scholarly works have been conducted on entrepreneurial orientation in relation to entrepreneurs' business success with a view to establishing relationship between the two constructs. Some of these previous studies can be found in the works of scholars (Shehu & Mahmood, 2014; Jabeen & Mahmood, 2014; Fatoki & Oni, 2014; Soares, Moeljadi, Rohman, & Solimun, 2014; Fairoz, Hirobumi, & Tanaka, 2010;

Krauss, Frese, freidrich & Unger, 2005; Frese, Brantjes & Hoorn, 2002), where significant positive relationship were established between the two constructs.

However, some scholars (see Andersen, 2010; Slater, & Narver, 2000; Walter, Auer, & Ritter, 2006), have found negative relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and business success, while in other empirical studies (Booheme et al., 2012; Arshad et al., 2014; Ambad & Wahab, 2013; Ali & Ali, 2014), mixed findings were being reported. This signifies inconclusiveness in findings and therefore, calls for a further investigation into the relationship.

Furthermore, these inconsistencies in findings could have resulted from situational factors, which may serve as constraints to the relationships between entrepreneurial competencies and entrepreneurial orientation on business success of women entrepreneurs (Hmieleski & Baron, 2009; Wiklund & Shepherd, 2005). As a way of addressing these arrays of inconsistencies in empirical findings in the relationships between these constructs, Barron & Kenny (1986) suggest an incorporation of a moderating variable into such relationships. This is because ~~moderator~~ moderator variables are typically introduced when there is unexpectedly weak or inconsistent relationship between a predictor and a criterion variable (Barron & Kenny, 1986, p. 1178).

Furthermore, Rauch et al. (2009) contend that an introduction of a moderator, as a contingent variable, into bivariate relationships would help reduce the possibility of research failures thereby allowing for a more precise result, which would give specific understandings to the interrelationship among the variables. It is on the account of the above suggestions, following the inconsistencies in findings among variables, that

Wiklund and Shepherd (2005a) recommend an incorporation of culture, as a moderator into the relationship, in order to pave way for the resolving of these inconsistencies that has resulted into inconclusiveness in findings.

The inclusion of culture as a moderator, into this relationship is consistent with the recommendations of Wiklund and Shepherd (2005a). This has therefore, satisfies the conditions of Baron and Kenny (1986) and Rauch et al. (2009), both of whom contends that whenever there is inconsistency in empirical findings between the independent and dependent variables, an inclusion of moderator, as a third-party variable, into such relationship is necessary in order to resolve the inconsistencies. This recommendation is therefore, followed in this study in order to further examine the outcome of these relationships (i.e., to know whether it would further strengthen or weakened the relationship).

Nevertheless, the concept of culture in the field of management and entrepreneurship literatures has been well documented. Some of these reports on culture can be found in previous studies, such as, in the innovation and product development practices (Nakata & Sivakumar, 1996), in decisions informing location of innovative capabilities (Jones & Davis, 2000), manufacturing quality practices (Prasad & Babbar, 2000), inter-cultural total quality management (TQM) (Goldman, 1994) and, in testing the effectiveness of Baldrige Award (Flynn & Saladin, 2006).

Other studies in which culture has featured includes an assessment of the significant role of national culture (using the Hofstede's dimensions), where the implementation of performance excellence was affirmed in explaining, and predicting of cultural

differences, in relation to leadership, as well as other parts of organizational behavior (Hofstede, 2001; Kirkman, Lowe, & Gibson, 2006), that of the impact of cultural factors on leader's effectiveness (Aycan, 2008) and, on the relationship between culture and business performance in the Gauteng province of South Africa (Radipere, 2014).

Similarly, as an intervening variable, culture or any of its dimensions, have been used as moderator in several studies. Some of these studies are the moderating influence of collectivistic (Chinese) and individualist (American) cultures, on the interrelationship among service and food quality, perceived value, behavioral intentions, and customer satisfaction, in fast food industries (Wen, Qin, Prybutok, & Blankson, 2012). Others are on identifying the effects of culture on the individual dimensions of entrepreneurial orientation (Lee, Lim & Pathak, 2011), or culture as moderator of entrepreneurial motivation (Brancu, Guðmundsdóttir, Gligor, & Munteanu, 2015).

In relations to entrepreneur's business success, culture have been used severally, as a moderating variable in several studies. This can be found in scholarly works (Marino, Strandholm, Steensma, & Weaver, 2002; Brettel, Engelen, Heinemann, & Vadhanasindhu, 2008; Brinckmann, Grichnik, & Kapsa, 2010; Wiengarten, Fynes, Pagell, & de Burca, 2010; Smith, Peterson, & Thomason, 2011; Sheikh, Newman, & Azzeh, 2013).

However, it is noteworthy that after a comprehensive review of existing literature on business success or performance, the researcher has not come across any study, which incorporates culture as a moderator in the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies, entrepreneurial orientation and entrepreneurs' business success. This

therefore, signifies that culture has not been used in any previous studies to moderate the relationship between these constructs. This discovery therefore, constitutes a theoretical gap, which this study intends to fill.

Nevertheless, one notable exception to this assertion can be found in the works of Marino, Strandholm, Steensma, & Weaver (2002), which examines the moderating influence of national culture on the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and strategic decisions. However, this present study differs from the works of Marino et al. (2002) in two ways. Contextually, the Marino's et al. (2002) study focused on firms, and it was conducted on a country-wide survey, while the focus of this present study is on the entrepreneurs, and it covers a specific section within a country. Theoretically, the present study differs from that of Marino's et al. (2002) because the Marino's et al. (2002) study examined the moderating influence of national culture on the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and strategic alliances, while this present study examines the influence of individual level culture on the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies, entrepreneurial orientation, and women business success.

Nevertheless, in this present study, the Hofstede's (1980) national cultural dimensions were adapted to the individual level culture (Bolton & Lane, 2012), as the moderating variable that would influence the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and entrepreneurial orientation, and women entrepreneurs' business success. This is because, findings by Mueller and Thomas (2000) have shown that the Hofstede's (1980) dimensions of national culture relates to the entrepreneurial traits of innovativeness, risk taking, internal locus of control, and energy level, all of which serves as the essential ingredients of a successful entrepreneurship.

On the basis of the above contention, it is the view of the researcher that the increasing rate of business failure among the Nigerian women entrepreneurs can be addressed from the perspective of the entrepreneurs themselves by examining the critical individual factors that impact entrepreneurs' success. This is to help repositioned business enterprise towards fulfilling their role of generating employment, creating wealth, and alleviating poverty and of making meaningful contributions to the GDP of the economy. It is in view of this that this present study examines the moderating effects of culture on the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and entrepreneurial orientation in relation to women entrepreneurs' business success in northwestern Nigeria.

1.3 Research Questions

Drawing an inference from the above problem statement, this study seeks to provide answers to the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies, entrepreneurial orientation, and the business success of women micro-entrepreneurs in the northwestern Nigeria, using culture as the moderator. From this broad research question comes the specific ones, which serves as a guide to this study.

1. Is there a significant relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneurs' business success?
2. Is there a significant relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' business success?
3. Is there a significant relationship between culture and women entrepreneurs' business success?
4. Does culture moderate the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneurs' business success?

5. Does culture moderate the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' business success?

1.4 Research Objectives

Emanating from the preceding research questions stated above is the goal of the study. The study aims at examining the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies, entrepreneurial orientations and women entrepreneurs' business success, under the moderating influence of culture. In order to achieve this goal, the following research objectives were developed in response to the research questions.

1. To examine the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneurs' business success.
2. To examine the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' business success.
3. To examine the relationship between culture and women entrepreneurs' business success
4. To determine the moderating effect of culture on the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneurs' business success.
5. To determine the moderating effect of culture on the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' business success.

1.5 Scope of the Study

The focus of this study is mainly on the self-employed, full time, women micro-entrepreneurs, especially those operating within the purview of micro or small business enterprises, where the entrepreneur performs the dual functions of an owner-manager.

This is because, the performance of women at this level of business operation has been acknowledged to contribute tremendously to economic growth, especially in the area poverty of alleviation, economic empowerment, and social wellbeing of women by boosting their feminine status, both within the family realm, and in the community at large (Akanji, 2006). In order to achieve this, the study focused on both the effects of entrepreneurial competencies and entrepreneurial orientation on the success of women entrepreneurs using culture as the moderator.

The scope of the study is confined to women entrepreneurs in the northwest geopolitical zone of Nigeria, comprising seven states like, Jigawa, Kaduna, Kano, Katsina, Kebbi, Sokoto and Zamfara. However, only four of these states (i.e., Katsina, Kebbi, Sokoto, and Zamfara), were selected for the study because they are found to share similar historical antecedents, cultural affiliations, and are all at similar stage of development, being mostly characterized by micro or small business enterprises.

Furthermore, the study is conducted within the confine of women entrepreneurs who have a minimum of three years business operating experience as an owner-manager. This is because scholars are of the opinion that three years' operating tenure of business experience is adequate for assessing the success of an entrepreneur in business (Salman, 2009; Harrison & Mason, 2007; Carter & Shaw, 2006; Kuzilwa, 2005). It is the opinion of these scholars opined that, while the first year of the business operation is spent by the entrepreneurs to familiarize with the market, the second year, would be used to achieve break-even in businesses, and to commence the process of paying off parts of the debts used in establishing the business, and by the third year of operation, the

entrepreneur would begin to draw reasonable profits from the proceeds of the business operation, after the debts owing have been paid off.

1.6 Significance of the Study

This present study has the potential of contributing, in several ways, to the growth and survival of women micro enterprises in Nigeria.

Firstly, the reports of most previous studies investigating the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies, entrepreneurial orientation and business success were found to have been marred by lots of inconsistencies leading to conflicting results (Rahman, et al., 2015; Sarwoko, et al., 2013; Man, *et al.*, 2012; Shehu & Mahmood, 2014; Arshad et al., 2014; Ambad & Wahab, 2013; Andersen, 2010). However, this study improves on the inconclusiveness of the results of these aforementioned studies theoretically, by incorporating a moderator into the relationship between the constructs, and then focused on the individual entrepreneurs. In order to achieve this goal, this study draws on the microfoundation perspective of RBV (Barney, Ketchen Jr, & Wright, 2011; Coff & Kryscynski, 2011; Felin & Foss, 2009), and Contingency Theory (Woodward, Dawson, & Wedderburn, 1965; Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967; Luthans & Stewart, 1977; Hofer, 1975; Luthans, 1973) and incorporated culture as a potential moderator into the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies, entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' business success.

Secondly, while previous studies have been shown to have established relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and entrepreneurial orientation in relation to business success at firm level, an incorporation of culture, as a potential moderating

variable into this relationship at individual level has made this present study a unique one. This is because there exists a dearth of study in the extant literature, where these variables have been combined as it was done in this study, and at individual level of analysis. This uniqueness in the study therefore, represents another significant theoretical contribution to the field of entrepreneurship literature.

Thirdly, and from the empirical point of view, extant literature has examined several factors that influences business success, but majority of these studies were conducted at the organizational or at the firm level of analysis. This implies that less attention has been paid to the individual factors that impact on business success. Therefore, an understanding of these individual factors of entrepreneurs that influences business success at micro-business level is therefore important, given the Gibb's (2005) contention that the success or failure of any business is predicated on the entrepreneur, who holds the key positions in the organization, and consistent with the views Mitchelmore and Rowley's (2013) who argue that the success or failure of a business depends, to a large extent on the entrepreneur's capabilities.

Additionally, most studies on factors affecting business success have been conducted mainly in Asia, Western, South-Eastern Europe, India, Germany, Iran, South Africa, with less attention being paid to countries in the Sub-Saharan African, and particularly Nigeria. Thus, an understanding of the underlying human factors that influences business success at the micro level is essential so that the results obtained from these western, South-eastern Europe, India, Asian, Germany, Iran, South Africa countries identified above can be generalized to the Nigerian context.

Methodologically, this study is significant in the sense that, most of the previous studies on entrepreneurial competencies and entrepreneurial orientation have been carried out with the instrument developed and tested in the western developed and eastern emerging economies. Hence, applying same instruments to women entrepreneurs at micro business level in the sub-Saharan African countries, particularly in Nigeria, which is an emerging economy, will further provide a better prove of the convergence validity of the measurement instrument.

Contextually, considering the high mortality rates that characterizes micro businesses in Nigeria, this study will benefit the government and policy makers. It will also be of benefit to entrepreneurs in general, most especially those operating within the purview of micro and small businesses, as an owner-manager, and specifically those owned by women, which is the focus of this study. This will enable them to break the yoke of failure, by given them the foresight to look beyond the problems of capital inadequacy, social, and institutional barriers, as being the major constraints leading to their failure. This will make them to re-dedicate themselves to stay in business by focusing on the developing their own individual capabilities and competencies, which serves as the key determinant of business success at the micro or small level of business operation.

Other significance of this study is the presumed tendency to identify entrepreneurs with masculine characteristics. This perception has made the focus of entrepreneurial research in micro and small businesses, being predominantly based on samples drawn from male entrepreneurs, with those that include the samples of women entrepreneurs, being conducted for the purpose of making comparison between the two genders (Halkias, Nwajiuba, Harkiolakis, & Caracatsanis, 2011). With the focus of this studies

being purely based on women entrepreneurs' measure of business success and the individual capabilities that resulted therein, makes this study a unique one.

Taken together, this study has by so doing, extends the frontiers of knowledge by examining the relationship between four variables of entrepreneurial competencies, entrepreneurial orientation, culture, and business success in the context of women entrepreneurs operating at the purview of micro or small business level of operations.

1.7 Organization of Thesis

Apart from this current chapter, which serves as the introductory part, the remainder of this thesis is structured in the following sequence. The chapter two attempt a discussion of an overview of the development of the Nigerian entrepreneurship environment. This serves as the context within which the study is carried out. The next chapter, which is chapter three, presents a comprehensive review of literature on the four entrepreneurial concepts of the variables that were reviewed in this study. This has eventually led to the development of a model, which has helped in explaining the relationship among the conceptual variables discussed in this thesis. Specifically, the four concepts of women entrepreneurs' business success, entrepreneurial competencies, entrepreneurial orientation and culture, discussed in the light of previous literatures findings, were thoroughly explored.

In order to link together the variously discussed concepts, with a view to determining their relationships, the micro-foundation perspective of the resource based theory (Barney, et al., 2011; Coff & Kryscynski, 2011; Felin & Foss, 2009), and contingency theory (Woodward, et al., 1965; Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967; Luthans & Stewart, 1977;

Hofer, 1975; Luthans, 1973), were used as the underpinning theories of the study. In this regard, an extensive elaboration of their applicability to this study were proffered. Following this discussion is the methodology adopted for the study, which is contained in chapter four of the study.

This chapter discusses the methodology of the study. The chapter comprises the research paradigm, research design, and the population of the study. Moreover, the operationalization of variables, questionnaire designs, procedure for data collection, pilot studies were among the important topics discussed in this chapter. Chapter five of this study was devoted to the analysis of data and the findings of the study, and lastly, is chapter six, which presents the summary of the key findings obtained from the analysed data of the study. These discussions were done in line with the objectives of the research. However, the chapter includes the theoretical, methodological and practical implications of the findings of the study, and in the light of these findings, it makes recommendations and offer suggestions for future research directions

1.8 Definition of Terms

Entrepreneurs' Business Success: Business success at the micro or small business levels is the ability of the entrepreneur to survive and sustain the business (Lussier & Pfeifer, 2001).

Culture: This is defined as the collective programming of the mind, which distinguishes members of one group or a category of people from another (Hofstede, 2001). This is operationally conceptualized as the sum total of shared learned beliefs, norms, customs and values, which individuals acquired through the process of long-term interactions

with their fellow community members, society, and the environment, and which then guides individuals and groups behavior in the society (Azam, 2015). This study therefore, conceptually operationalized culture at the individual level of analysis, as a reflection of values and practices exemplified by entrepreneurs in their respective businesses (Frese, 2006).

Entrepreneurial competencies: This refers to the underlying characteristics, comprising the generic or specific knowledge, motives, self-image, social roles, traits, and skills which result in venture birth, survival, and/or growth (Bird, 1995). In this study, entrepreneurial competencies have been operationally conceptualized as a higher-level individual characteristic that encompasses the personality traits, knowledge, and skills, that are seen as the total personal ability of the entrepreneur to perform specific job role successfully (Man et al., 2002).

Entrepreneurial orientation: This refers to an individual, groups or organization disposition towards risk taking, proactive and innovative (Covin & Slevin, 1989). In this present study, entrepreneurial orientation has been operationally conceptualized, as individual level strategic behavior, especially at micro, small or in entrepreneurially founded organizations, to willingly take risks, innovate, and be proactive towards leading an organization (Bolton, 2012).

Micro-entrepreneurs: An entrepreneur who operates micro-enterprise whose total assets is less than Five Million Naira (#5,000,000), and with a total workforce of not exceeding nine employees (SMEDAN, 2012).

Women Entrepreneurs: This refers to women who are fully involved in entrepreneurial activities by taken the risks involved in combining production resources together in a special way, and fully exploit the opportunities identified in their environment by producing goods and services (Okafor & Mordi, 2010).



CHAPTER TWO

THE NIGERIA ENTREPRENEURSHIP DEVELOPMENT

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an overview of women entrepreneurship, the government efforts at promoting the growth of micro, small and medium enterprises (MSMEs) in Nigeria, government programmes that were aimed at promoting Women Entrepreneurship Development (WED) in particular, and it concludes by enumerating some of the challenges confronting women entrepreneurship development in Nigeria.

2.2 Women Entrepreneurship: An overview.

Researches on women entrepreneurship has over the years, depicts women as one of the formidable forces to be reckoned with in the area socio-economic development, be it at the local, national or global economies (Ademokun & Ajayi, 2012). This owes to the fact that women entrepreneurs owned about one-third of the world businesses, which operates in the informal sector of economy worldwide (ILO, 2014). However, these tremendous achievements of women in business has manifested in the numbers of firms which they owned and controlled, the number of employment they have helped to generate, their efforts in alleviating the level of poverty, and in the area of wealth creation (NWBC, 2004).

Consequently, reports by NWBC (2004) survey further attests the growing number of women entrepreneurs. For instance, the survey reveals that within the space of five years, (i.e., 1997-2002), an average of 424 women-owned businesses were being

established on a daily basis, which together translates to an approximately 775,000 business start-ups yearly, and amounting to about 55 percent of new established firms in the U.S. Also, Ademokun and Ajayi (2012), assert that in the year 2004 alone, women-owned businesses in U.S. generated employment to the tune of 9.8 million employees. However, in spite of this high number of women business owners, only two percent of them employs more than 10 employees, while over 89.5 percent of them, operates alone without employees (NWBC, 2016).

This continuous rise in women entrepreneurial activities across the globe has made the population of women-owned businesses, the fastest growing entrepreneurial sector in the world (Brush, De Bruin, & Welter, 2009). Notwithstanding this upsurge in the number of women entrepreneurs, the rates of entrepreneurial activities among women is still far less than that of men, and this differences in number between the two genders, have persisted across countries (Shinnar, Giacomini, & Janssen, 2012).

For instance, one of the colossal achievement of women was reported in the 2012 Survey of Business Owners and Self-Employed Person among US women entrepreneurs. The report confirms that women-owned businesses comprises about 36 percent of the U.S. total business ownership, and they employ over eight million people, generates over \$1.4 trillion in sales, and having a growth rate, that far exceeds that of the national average (NWBC, 2016).

However, this report on women business owners in the U.S. contrasts sharply with that of women entrepreneurs operating in developing and transition economies, where micro and small enterprises dominate the business scene, with little or no potential for growth

(ILO, 2014). A major setback in some of these economies is that women entrepreneurs have to contend with several gender barrier issues, arising from the inherent discriminatory customary practices, property and inheritance laws, coupled with other institutional obstacles, such as, non-accessibility to formal credit institutions, time constraints, which arise from family commitments and household responsibilities, with which women are being saddled (ILO, 2014).

Consistently, the situation of Nigeria's women entrepreneurs, compares to what obtains in other developing countries, is somewhat different from that of developed countries. Economically, Nigerian women occupies the lowest rung on the ladder of poverty (Iheduru, 2000). Although, their involvement in commercial activities pre-dates the colonial era, their commercial activities were still limited to the confines of subsistence level, which only serve to supplement the incomes of their family (Akinwumi, 2000).

Unfortunately, the women entrepreneurial activities during the period of colonial era featured mainly in area of small-scale businesses and could not bring in the much-desired profits when compared to that of their male counterpart. Nevertheless, the advent of the oil boom and changes in the government policies that subsequently followed, in the post-colonial era, decrease the number of women participation in economic activities, only to re-surface again in the beginning of 1980s, to economically support themselves and that of their families (Akinwumi, 2000).

Given the current population of women, which constitutes about 50 percent of the total country's population (Iheduru, 2000; Yesufu, 2000; Ojo, 1997), the male folks are still dominating the Nigerian entrepreneurial scene. Roughly about 35 percent of the women

population, mostly featuring in micro and small enterprises, engaged in entrepreneurship (Odoemene, 2003), with a greater percentage of them, falling within the range of home-based businesses, or micro or small-scale enterprise operators (Akinwumi, 2000; ILO, 1998). However, this trend of skewness, coupled with the rate of flexibility and innovativeness, which forms critical issues in feminist business, is better expressed at this level of business operation (Kerka, 1993; Aburdene & Naisbitt, 1992).

From this foregoing discussion therefore, women entrepreneurship can be conceptualized as those women entrepreneurs who are fully involved in entrepreneurial activities, who take the risks involved in combining production resources together in a special way, and who fully exploit the opportunities identified in their environment by producing goods and services (Okafor & Mordi, 2010).

2.3 Concept of Micro Enterprises

Several criteria have been used as guidelines by various institutions and economies to classify organisations as either, micro, small, or medium enterprises. For example, such criteria as sales, employment or investment have been used in defining small and medium sized enterprises (Ayyagari, Beck, & Demirguc-Kunt, 2007). However, some of the most widely used criteria have been the number of employees, total sales volume, total asset base, methods of production, and in some case, the legal status of the business (Abor & Quartey, 2010).

Nevertheless, every country use different criteria in her definition of small and medium enterprises. For instance, Malaysia use two basic criteria in its definition of SMEs. These are the number of full-time employees working in the organization or the annual sales

turnover of the organisation. On the bases of these two criteria, two business sectors have been identified. These are manufacturing and services sector. In terms of manufacturing sector, SMEs are enterprises with full-time employees which must not exceed 200 or whose annual sales turnover must not exceed RM50Million. For services and other sectors, SMEs are firms whose number of full time employees ranged between 0 – 75, or its annual sales turnover of must not exceed RM20Million (smecorp.gov.my).

Additionally, some countries use only the number of employees as the only criterion for differentiating SMEs from other categories of firms. For instance, in Egypt, firms whose number of employee falls within the range of between 5 and 50 are classified as SMEs, while in Vietnam, the number of firm classified as SMEs are those whose total number of employees falls within 10 and 300 employees.

However, looking from the institutional perspective, the definitions of SMEs defers from one institution to another. For instance, the European Union, classified SMEs as the categories of business whose total number of employees does not exceed 250, and with an annual sales turnover of €50 million and/or annual balance of sheet of not exceeding €43 million (Verheugen, 2005). Similar to definition of SMEs by Egypt and Vietnam, OECD and UNIDO categorized SMEs into four categories on the basis of the number of their employees. Self-employed has 0 number of employees, while the number of employees in micro business ranged from 2-9. The number of employees in small business ranged from 10-49, with that of medium scale enterprise ranging from 50-249 [UNIDO & OECD] 2004).

Furthermore, the World Bank offers an elaborate definition of the term. It defines SMEs as business organizations whose total number of employees does not exceed 300, have an annual revenue level of US\$15 million, and asset base of US\$15million. Similarly, the

Inter-American Development Bank, define SMEs as enterprises with an annual total revenue of less than US\$3 million, and with a maximum of 100 employees (Bouri, et al., 2011).

Nevertheless, in the case of Nigeria, micro, small and medium enterprises (MSMEs) are distinguished from one another using the dual criteria of number of employees and assets of the business (excluding land and building). On the basis of this categorization, a micro enterprise firm is therefore, seen as one whose total assets is less than five million Naira and having a workforce of not exceeding nine employees. Small enterprises, on their part, are those whose total assets are above Five Million Naira, and are having a total workforce of ten employees and above, but not exceeding forty-nine. Lastly, the medium enterprises are those classified as firms whose total assets stand above Fifty Million Naira, but not exceeding Five Hundred Million Naira, and are having a total workforce ranging between fifty to One-hundred and ninety-nine employees.

However, in case of conflict in classification based on these dual criteria, the employment-based classification of businesses takes precedent. Based on this classification therefore, the focus of this study is on the micro enterprises, as women entrepreneurs in Nigeria are predominantly, found in this category of business, due to its flexibility and low capital outlay involved (Kerka, 1993; Aburdene & Naisbitt. 1992).

Table 2.1

Definition of Micro-SMEs in Nigeria

S/N	Size Category	Employees	Assets (Excluding Land & Building)
1	Micro Enterprises	0 to 9	Less than #5 million
2	Small Enterprises	10 to 49	#5 to less than #50 million
3	Medium Enterprises	50 to 199	#50 to less than #500

Source: National Policy on Micro-SMEs (SMEDAN, 2013b)

2.4 Government Efforts at Promoting Entrepreneurship in Nigeria

In recognition of the crucial role of micro, small and medium enterprises, in the areas poverty alleviation, employment generation, wealth creation, exports promotion, and to maintain a balanced regional development in the country, successive Nigerian governments have evolved several policy thrusts, with a focus on ways of establishing, stimulating, developing, as well as promoting entrepreneurs, in the areas of micro, small and medium enterprises, with specific focus being paid to rural and cottage industries, where women entrepreneurs mostly featured.

To achieve these objectives, government at all levels, have been actively involved in promoting self-employment through the provision of assistance in areas of infrastructure, finance, training, technology, raw materials, and marketing (Hammawa & Hashim, 2016; Sanusi, 2003). Some of these programs and support measures initiated by the government in promoting micro, small and medium enterprises owned by both men and women entrepreneurs in Nigeria are discussed below.

(i) Industrial Development Centers (IDCs)

This center was first established in Owerri in 1962 by the then Eastern Nigeria Government and the Ministry of Trade and Industry but it was later taken over in

1972 by the federal government. Thereafter, several IDCs were set up in different states of the federation. The main motive behind the establishment of IDCs is to provide training and managerial skills to entrepreneurs, assist them in production planning and control, offer advice on product development, and assist in project appraisal for the purpose of obtaining loans from financial institutions.

(ii) Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN)

The Central Bank of Nigeria has, since its inception, been instrumental in the promoting and developing SMEs in the country. Part of these is contained in its credit guidelines to commercial banks, which requires them to advance certain percentage of their lending to SMEs at preferential interest rates with penalty being meted out on erring banks for non-compliance with the proceeds there from being transferred to Nigeria Bank for Commerce and Industry (NBCI) for further on-lending to SMEs.

(iii) The Nigerian Industrial development bank (NIDB)

NIDB was initially known as Investment Company of Nigeria (ICON). However, it was restructured in 1964 into NIDB, and charged with the sole responsibility of harnessing, both local and foreign skills, as well as private capital that are required for establishing new industries, and in the development of the existing ones. It also provides medium and long-term credit facilities to both emerging and existing firms in the areas of industrial and mining sectors of the economy.

(iv) Small Scale Industries Credit Scheme (SSICS)

This credit scheme was set up in 1971 as small industries development program by the Federal Military Government to provide financial and technical assistance to SMEs. The operation of this scheme led to the creation of small industries credit fund which later metamorphoses into small scale industrial credit scheme (SSICS). The objective of this scheme is to provide, in liberal terms, the credit needs of SMEs, and they are to be managed by states Ministries of Industries, Trade and Cooperatives.

(v) Nigerian Bank for Commerce and Industries (NBCI)

This bank was established in 1973 and charged with the responsibility of providing financial services to indigenous businessmen and business women, among others, and to assist in the administration of SME I World Bank loan scheme. A total of #241.8 million were approved for disbursement by the bank within the period of 1981 to 1988. This bank also assists in the financing of 126 projects under the same World Bank loan scheme.

(vi) Promotion of Small-Scale Enterprises (PSSE)

The Central bank of Nigeria (CBN) has from 1970 onward become instrumental in its developmental efforts by promoting wholly-owned Nigerian enterprises. To achieve this goal, it directs, in her then Policy Guidelines that credit to indigenous borrowers should make up 35 percent of the total loans and advances of both the commercial and merchant banks. This proportion of loans was later increased in the subsequent years with emphasis placed more on small and micro enterprises.

(vii) Promotion of Agricultural and Manufacturing Activities (PAMA)

Prior to its abrogation in 1996, the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) has through its Monetary policy Circular directed that at least 15 and 10 percent of credit advances by commercial and merchant banks respectively be granted for the development of agricultural activities with a moratorium of one, four, five and seven years for peasant small-scale farmers, cash crop farming, medium and large scale mechanized farming, and animal ranching respectively. However, in terms of credit to the manufacturing sector, the policy stipulates at least 35 and 40 percent of loans and advance by commercial and merchant banks respectively.

(viii) National Economic Reconstruction Fund (NERFUND)

This scheme was established as a funding mechanism by Decree No. 25 of 1988. However, due to the tight monetary policy that followed after the adoption of Structural Adjustment programme (SAP) by the Federal Government, it became difficult for many SMEs to get finance for investment and working capital purposes. The aim of this fund therefore, is to serve as bridge to the widening gap between the provision of local and foreign funds to small and medium enterprises on a relatively long-term basis of five to ten years duration at a more concessionary interest rates.

However, in achieving this objective, a total of US\$144.9 million and #681.9 million, both in foreign exchange and local currency components respectively were disbursed between 1990 and 1998 to finance 218 projects. However, further devaluation of Naira constrained the lending activities of the programme

as it was eventually merged with Nigeria Industrial Development Bank (NIDB) and Nigeria Bank for Commerce and Industry (NBCI) to form Bank of Industry (BOI).

(ix) The Small and Medium-Scale Enterprises (SMEs) Apex Unit Loan Scheme

This was established in 1990 by Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) as a way of increasing SMEs access to credit. The total cost of the project was US\$451.8 million of which US\$270 million was financed by the World Bank. SMEs Apex Unit was therefore set up by CBN to administer the loan component as well as other activities of the scheme with a view to facilitating the implementation of the project. But by 1996, the loan disbursement by the scheme ceased.

(x) Small and Medium Enterprises Equity Investment Scheme (SMEEIS)

This scheme serves as a way of resuscitating the continued decline in output of the industrial sector following the realization of the fact that the key to industrial revival and the economy lies in the development of small and medium-scale industries. The scheme was initiated in 1999 by Bankers Committees as a way of assisting SMEs through equity participation. To achieve this, banks were required to set aside 10 percent of their profit before tax which was to be invested in SMEs in the country. This banks participation in SMEs takes the form of equity participation, project monitoring, advisory service, and nurturing of industries to maturity.

(xi) Nigeria Agricultural, Cooperative, and Rural Development bank (NACRDB)

This bank has now been renamed as Bank of Agriculture (BOA). The bank was incorporated in October, 2000 as an amalgam of the Nigeria Agricultural and Cooperative Bank (NACB), Peoples Bank of Nigeria (PBN), and Family Economic advancement Programme (FEAP). The bank was jointly owned by Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) and Federal Ministry of Finance Incorporated (MOFI) in the proportion of 40 and 60 percent respectively. The main purpose of its establishment is to finance agriculture and small and medium enterprises. While 70 percent of its loans and advances are for micro credit facilities, the balance of 30 percent goes for macro credit (CBN, 2005).

(xii) World bank-assisted SME II Loan Project

This project was set up in 1989 to further increase the level of credit allocation of SMEs. A total loan facility of US\$270 million was negotiated for on-lending facilities to SMEs through some Participating Financial Institutions (PFIs). The credit and other component of the loan facility were administered by CBN through the SMEs Apex unit which was established in 1990 for efficient implementation of the project. The total loans approved by this unit stood at US\$132.8 million for 211 projects between 1990 and 1994 while US\$107.1 million was disbursed to 102 projects in 1996.

(xiii) Bank of Industry (BOI)

Bank of Industry (BOI) is a product of the amalgamation of Nigeria Bank for Commerce and Industry (NBCI), Nigeria Industrial Development Bank (NIDB), and National Economic Reconstruction Fund (NERFUND). It was established

in the year 2000 and charged with the sole responsibility of advancing credit facilities to the industrial sector. Its mandate is the provision of financial assistance for the establishment of small, medium, and large industrial projects as well as resuscitating, modernizing, expanding and diversifying existing industries. In terms of loan advancement to micro-SMEs, its percentage disbursement increases from 35 to 96 percent in 2005 and 2010 respectively (SMEDAN, 2012).

(xiv) Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises Development Fund (MSMEDF)

In recognition of the important contribution of micro, small and medium enterprises sub-sector to the Nigeria economy, the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) launches the micro, small and medium enterprises development fund in August, 2013. The purpose of this programme is to eliminate the existing funding gap between men and women entrepreneurs by firstly setting aside 60 percent of its fund for women entrepreneurs, and subsequently increasing the financial access of women entrepreneurs by 15 percent annually till gender parity is fully attained. This programme thus, prescribed a 50:50 on-lending ratio between micro enterprises and small and medium enterprises respectively.

(xv) Small and Medium Enterprises Development Agency of Nigeria (SMEDAN)

This agency was established in 2003 as a one-stop shop for starting, resuscitating, and growing of micro, small and medium enterprises in Nigeria. The agency is saddled with the responsibilities of facilitating and promoting the growth and development of micro, small and medium enterprises through

provision of access to resources, training and development. Additionally, the agency has commenced the training of National Youth Service Corps (NYSC) member on investment and entrepreneurial skills. This programme, termed as Corpsers' Entrepreneurial Programme (CEP) is organized for the purpose of exploiting available opportunities in small-scale enterprises.

(xvi) National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS)

This is a comprehensive economic policy package developed by the federal government since the inception of civil rule in 1999, after two decades of military dictatorship. This policy was fashioned out to revive Nigeria from her ailing economy. The main policy thrust of NEEDS is to ensure rapid growth, sustainable development and poverty reduction. However, the policy is committed to generate employment, create wealth, reduce the level of poverty, and value re-orientation. It stressed on the commitment of the federal government to programmes of collaboration that would strengthen the private sector. Hence, it aims at developing local resource content in the area of SMEs development by calling for less reliance on importation.

However, the policy recognized the essence of empowering people in the designing and management of their own developmental initiatives. Hence, it aims at empowering the poor rural dwellers by providing them access to finance and land, access to improved seedling and planting materials, farm tools and inputs, creation of traditional thrift and saving schemes, and participation in decision making process. An equivalent of this programme was also created at the state and local government levels.

2.5 Women Entrepreneurship Development (WED) in Nigeria

The recognition of the potential contributions of women to national development, which follows after the United Nations declaration of Decade for Women (1976-1985), have made various governments across the globe to regard the issue of women as an integral component of their national development (Akinbami & Aransiola, 2015). With this declaration comes the various global efforts (see the Copenhagen, Denmark, 1980; Nairobi, Kenya 1985, and the Beijing, China 1995) on women's conferences, all of which were aimed at integrating women into mainstream of national development (FMWA & SD, 2012).

Consistent with this declaration is the emergence of various women entrepreneurship development programmes designed by every successive administration in Nigeria. The very essence of these women entrepreneurship development is to evolve ways of increasing the economic potential and opportunities of women entrepreneurs through the provision of assistance in the area of startups, as well as in strengthening and expanding their existing business enterprises (ILO, 2014). This is done in recognition of the crucial role played by women entrepreneurs in the economy, specifically in the area of job creation, revenue generation and poverty alleviation.

However, to fully develop women entrepreneurial acumen towards achieving laudable objectives, successive administration has put in place various institutional arrangements which were aimed at articulating and implementing laudable projects and programmes that are women oriented in their efforts to sustaining the role played by women in the

national development of the country (Lawal & Oguche, 2004). Some of these programmes as identified by Lawal and Oguche (2004) and Aliyu (2003) includes:

(i) National Directorate of Employment (NDE)

National Directorate of Employment, as the name implies, was set up by the Federal government in 1986 as a way of combating the problems of unemployment by providing vocational training to young school leavers towards becoming self-reliant as well as providing credit facilities to entrepreneurs as a way of assisting them to develop their own businesses. The two credit facilities provided by this scheme are Matured Peoples Scheme (MPS) and Graduate Job Creation Loan Scheme (GJLS), both of which is to be repaid within a period of five years with different moratorium at a concessionary interest rate. The directorate has the women's employment section whose focus is on the issue of women unemployment.

(ii) Better Life for Rural Women (BLRW)

This programme was initiated in 1987 by the then government of Gen. Ibrahim Babangida with a view to improving the economic status of Nigerian rural women. The programme was established in collaboration with the government, private and non-governmental organizations (NGOs), specifically the National Council of Women Societies (NCWS) by providing credit facilities and vocational training for women. The programme goes further to promote cottage industries among women in rural areas as well as creating avenue to market to their products. This program later became absorbed into the National

Commission for Women and finally metamorphosed into the Family Support Program (FSP) under the subsequent administration of Gen. Sani Abacha.

(iii) The National Commission for Women (NCW)

This was created by decree 30 of 1989 and it came into operation in 1990. This commission was established with the sole aims of developing policies and programmes that could enhance the status of Nigerian women and address the various issues militating against their full participation in the development process. The commission, as one of its objectives, is to inspire women on the essence of creating cooperative society among them either in the rural or urban areas and stimulate their creative entrepreneurship both in the area of micro/cottage industries or small scale's industries.

(iv) Family Economic Advancement Programme (FEAP)

This was established in 1993-1998 by the federal government to cushion the level of poverty among women living in the rural areas. It is microcredit scheme, which aimed at providing investment opportunities for women with a view to stimulating economic growth at the grass root level thereby opening up the avenues for them to earn higher incomes and by so doing, raise their standard of living. The programme aimed at achieving this by setting up raw material-based SMEs in different localities, which will, in turn, provide both economic advantage and managerial skills to the rural poor.

(v) National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP)

The very essence of establishing this programme is to combat the high tide of unemployment rate and poverty in Nigeria. It has as part of the objectives, the

provision of job in order to guarantee a steady source of income, high nutritional food, quality education, good housing, basic health care services, and communication. The programme was able to create a total of 200,000 jobs for both semi and unskilled youth in 2002, while in 2003, it trained 126,128 youths in different skills acquisition programmes with about 76,332 graduates being employed under its Mandatory Attachment Programme (MAP), and a total of 2,497 tricycles sold out at discount prices throughout the country (CBN, 2005).

(vi) Women Education (WE)

A special section has been established by the government in both the federal and state ministries of education across the federation to spearhead and collate activities to assist women towards achieving access to education. To this end, several girl's secondary schools were established across the country at all levels of government (Federal, State; Local Governments) to promote girl child education.

(vii) National Council on Education (NCE)

In 1986, the Federal government endorsed the policy objective on female education. Some aspects of the policies are the creation of awareness among the citizens on the issue of equal education opportunities to all, irrespective of their age, gender, age, locality, creed or status and the need for them to seize this opportunity. Other responsibilities of the council include, the provision of basic literacy and skill acquisition in areas of cooking, sewing, typing, knitting, and baking to illiterate females and school drop-outs in order to re-awaken the

consciousness of women on the need for them to develop positive self-image about themselves.

(viii) Country Women Association of Nigeria (COWAN)

This is an individual financial intervention which takes the form of non-governmental organization (NGO). This was established by one Mrs. Bisi Ogunleye as far back in 1982 for the purpose of providing women with microcredit, in Ondo State, Southwestern part of Nigeria (Iheduru, 2002). The operation of the association was based on *isusu* model which fits in with the Grameen Bank model set up by Professor Mohammed Yunus in Bangladesh. Membership of this association is the rural and urban poor who constitute themselves into cooperatives unions with a view to access the microcredit. The membership of the association rose to 178,000, forming into 35,000 cooperative unions. The principal objective of the association is to promote the well-being of women folk through empowerment and capacity building, which ensures self-reliance and sustainable development.

(ix) Peoples Bank of Nigeria (PBN)

This is another Federal government effort that aimed at promoting financial mediation in the rural areas with a view to alleviating poverty and promoting rural empowerment. This was established in 1988 and it commenced operation in 1990 with an initial capital of 30 million Naira (\$1.36 million). This bank was established, owing to the realization of the increasing level of pauperization among micro-entrepreneurs, majority of whom are rural women dwellers who

could not afford the loan collateral usually demanded by conventional commercial banks. In addition to loan facility, the bank also provides micro credit to under-privileged individuals to enable them initiate small scale industries.

From the foregoing discussion and looking at the several interventionist programmes of the Federal Government at initiating, promoting and sustaining entrepreneurship development, either in terms of advisory, financing, or mobilization, one would have expected that the problems of micro, small and medium enterprises development in Nigeria, and especially that of women entrepreneurs to have long been overcome but on the contrary, with every woman's start-ups is a corresponding failure, as only few of these programmes were able to see the light of the day, with many of them either being rendered inactive with the passage of time, due to undercapitalization or are being merged or have totally failed to achieve the goal for which they were being established (Iheduru, 2002).

Conclusively, Aliyu (2003) summed up the performances of these various interventionist programmes by arguing that, in spite of all the several efforts by the federal government aimed at stimulating the development of women entrepreneurship, these programmes have failed to yield the desired result due to several reasons. Among the enumerated reasons for their failure are: poor policy frameworks, lack of institutional framework and delivery mechanisms, lack of target setting for agencies, ministries and programmes due to inadequate coordination, monitoring and implementation of programmes.

Others are lack of effective cooperation and complementation among the existing tiers of governments, an unhealthy competition among government agencies and institutions, function duplication among government institutions and agencies, non-involvement of community groups and traditional authorities in projects selection and implementation, etcetera. Adepelumi (2012) also asserts that some of these programmes failed to deliver the purpose for which they were established, because they lack a well-defined policy framework to tackle poverty as most of them become engrossed by corruption, selfishness, and political deception.

2.6 Challenges of Women Entrepreneurship in Nigeria

One distinguishing characteristic of women entrepreneurs, which often differentiate them from their men counterpart, lies in the multiplicity of roles played by women, both in caring for the family and in carrying out of domestic responsibilities (Chinaemerem, 2014). This multiplicity of roles has to a certain extent, constrained women's level of participation in businesses and other economic activities.

It is an established fact that women entrepreneurs have made substantial contributions to the economies of both developed and developing nations by way of their participation in start-ups as well as in nurturing the growth of small and medium business enterprises (United Nation, 2006). It is therefore in this recognition that their activities and interest, both in the economic growth and development, and specifically in the area of entrepreneurship, have become so important in the socio-economic development as they are often seen to constitute a significant proportion of small and medium enterprises operators (Kjeldsen & Nielson, 2000; Josiane, 1998).

However, in Nigeria, in spite of the level of participation of women in entrepreneurship as a way of enhancing economic development, they still represent a minority of all entrepreneurs as their access to finance and other forms of resources are being impeded (Ogidi, 2014; OECD, 2004). As such, women are confronted with the several problems associated with entrepreneurship development and these peculiarities in problems have tended to limit the level of women participation in business. Below are explanations of some of the problems confronting women entrepreneurs in Nigeria.

(i) Credit Accessibility

One major challenge to women entrepreneurship development in developing countries is the lack of access to finance required to start up their own businesses. Lack of financial support for the initial start-up by women entrepreneurs has been a major source of apprehension for both young and emerging women entrepreneurs (Ekpe, 2011). The non-accessibility to funds has often resulted in reduction in the level of business income, leading to their inability to save, and eventually resulting in the closure of the business (Omboi, & Priscilla, 2011; Akanji, 2006). Women have no security to pledge as collateral in their names for accessing loans from external sources when the need arise (Lambing & Kuehi, 1997).

(ii) Low Level of Education

Lack of education has often posed has a major impediment to women's formal participation in entrepreneurial activities. This is glaring, especially in the northern part of Nigeria where about 85.7 percent of girl child are uneducated

(Ogunche & Rabah, 2001) because they were not given equal opportunity to education like their boy counterpart (Alekhugie, 2014).

The high level of illiteracy among women, resulting from the deficiency in education and training, has made it impossible for women to become aware of the existing business technology and market opportunities. In addition to this, they tend to neither have the knowledge of running businesses, nor the ability to successfully carry out entrepreneurial activities in a competitive market environment (Alekhugie, 2014). This therefore, dampens their achievement motive which serves as a driven force for becoming a potential entrepreneur (Amuchie & Asotibe, 2015).

(iii) Low risk bearing propensity

One essential requisite of successful entrepreneurship is the propensity to take risk. The high level of illiteracy among women entrepreneurs in Nigeria has reduced their ability to take risks that are involved in running a successful business, hence the smallness in size of their business and its eventual failure.

(iv) Male dominated society

The patriarchal nature of Nigerian society where man is seen as the head of the family has reduced the rate at which women become entrepreneurs. This is because women are confined to within the domestic sphere, as they are often perceived as a weaker sex. This act of confinement has invariably, retarded women economic potentials and promoted male domination over women in

Nigeria (Molemodile, 2000). However, this is mostly visible in the patriarchal family system of Muslim's dominated region in the northern part of Nigeria

(v) Inadequate savings

Savings is an important element of micro-credit. It refers to the minimum funds required in order to become eligible to access funds from financial institutions, or other money lending institutions or credit associations, such as Rotating Savings and Credits Associations (ROSCA). The inability of Nigerian women entrepreneurs to save and effectively utilize such savings has serious consequences on their business performance (Ojo, 2009). Emphasizing on the importance of saving by entrepreneurs, Akanji (2006) stressed that individual's personal savings constitute an important pre-requisite often demanded by any micro-credit institution or credit association, before credit facilities or other financial institutions assistance could be extended to the entrepreneurs.

(vi) Lack of access to market

Venturing into new market requires adequate knowledge, expertise and social connections, which are lacking in most Nigerians women entrepreneurs. Hammawa and Hashim (2016) assert that women business owners are lacking in training, as well as marketing and managerial experience which are necessary for strengthening their activities towards achieving their business goals and objectives. Consistently, Sulyanto and Rahab (2012) assert that women-who owned micro, small and medium enterprises find it difficult to produce and market their products at the same time, and in addition to this, they are lacking in

their exposure to international markets and the use of modern processors or machinery which can be employed to boost their productivity level.

(vii) Training and Education

According to Khan (2014), entrepreneurial training of female business owners is essential in order to enhance their productivity level. Training is an essential tool for providing requisite skills and experience needed by the business owners (Cooney, 2012). Report has it that most female business owners in developing countries are lacking in skills and training, which are the bane of the poor performances often recorded in their businesses (ILO, 2011). The Nigerian women have less access to education, and training in both vocational and technical skills, which can help to enhance the growth and development of their entrepreneurial activities (Ekpe, 2011). Inadequate education and training affect the survival and existence of women owned businesses in Africa (Fasoranti, Akinrinola, & Ajibefin, 2006).

(viii) Network affiliation

This refers to the ways of strengthening relationships between individuals, groups, firms or societies. In relation to entrepreneurship, it refers to ways business owners establish link or relationship with other business groups in order to achieve the goal of their firm (Adler & Kwon, 2002). Networking can also be conceived as a process of whereby people are connected together within and outside the environment of the business. It simply described how individuals

interact among themselves in a networking form (Sarasvathy, Kumar, York, & Bhagavatula, 2014).

The essence of network affiliation in business is to be able to provide free information and support services to the affiliate organizations (Atieno, 2009). A strong network affiliation helps to strengthen the performance of the firm towards achieving its goal and objectives (Ahmad & Naimat, 2011). However, women entrepreneurs in Nigeria, especially those in the northern part, and due to their socio-cultural inclination, seldom affiliate with any group and this has in turns limited the level of their business performance.

(ix) Inimical Social Norms

The inimical social attitudes and norms exhibit in some societies towards women often inhibit their consideration for starting a business, and where these societal norms are dared, the systemic barriers confine them to very small micro businesses, they operate within the confines of their homes, and in the informal sector of the economy (ILO, 2014). Theses societal attitudes not only limit women's opportunity of earning income for themselves and their immediate families, but also inhibit them from attaining their full potential in contributing towards job creation, poverty alleviation, social-economic development and environmental stewardship (ILO, 2014).

2.7 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter has therefore, made an overview of women entrepreneurship in U.S vis-à-vis that of developing economies, with that of Nigeria being the main focus. It also

attempts a classification of the categories of enterprises, using the Nigeria own model of SMEs. It goes on to expound on several efforts by successive administrations in Nigeria, aimed at promoting the growth of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) in general, and that of women entrepreneurs in particular. It finally concludes by identifying the several inhibiting factors that posed as challenges to the realization of women economic potential towards contributing to the social-economic development of the country.



CHAPTER THREE

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an extensive literature review on the variables of the study. The relevant literatures on the dependent, independent and the moderating variables are discussed. The chapter begins with the conceptual definitions of each of the variable, after which it provides an elaborate discussion on the different dimensions of variables under review. The chapter goes on to further explore the relationships between the independent variables in relation to the dependent variable which culminate into the postulation of tentative hypotheses for the study. The chapter concludes by discussing the underpinning theories on which the theoretical framework of the study was built. The two underpinning theories discussed are the Resource-based theory and the Contingency theory.

3.2 Entrepreneurs' Business Success

3.2.1 Concept of Women Entrepreneurs' Business Success

The term business success connotes different interpretations in the same way as the entrepreneurial perceptions of the term differs among entrepreneurs and genders. Succinctly, success can be defined as a favourable or prosperous conclusion of any human endeavour, activity or business (Cabrera & Mauricio, 2017). However, in the field of entrepreneurship research on small and micro enterprises, the concept of success is often used synonymously with the term performance and growth (Reijonen & Komppula, 2007). For example, Gill and Biger (2012) used the term performance,

success and growth alternately in measuring firms' performance, while Alasadi (2007) critically analyzed and modeled performance of small businesses, by confirming growth as being synonymous with success. Komppula (2004) describes performance firms from the angle of how successful a firm is and uses the terms success and performance interchangeably.

Inferring from the above analogies, business success can, in its simplest form, be equated to a state of continued business operation, opposite of which is failure, meaning the cessation of the business operation (Simpson, Tuck, & Bellamy, 2004). Consistently, Pasanen (2003) likens the term business success to a state of achieving a well-defined and measurable goals and objectives in all segments of human life. However, these goals and objectives may sometimes be subjective or financial in nature.

Although, studies in extant literature has shown that success of small firms is, to some extent, influenced by the behaviors and characteristics of their owners, in addition to the characteristics of the tasks environment (Keats & Bracker, 1988). Hence, some entrepreneurs might have deemed themselves as being successful, but an assessment from the external environment, using the traditional financial indicators of performance, may show that their stage of business operation presents different levels of successes (Simpson, et al., 2004). This is because the perception of success, as viewed from one angle, may suggest unsuccessful business activities when viewed from the other angle (Davidsson, Steffens, & Fitzsimmons, 2013) because, its measure varies among individuals or context (Cabrera & Mauricio, 2017).

Therefore, a measure of success from the perspective of micro or small business shows that success can be assessed using several indicators. However, whichever measure of success is used, one thing that remains significant is the objective, which the entrepreneur seeks to achieve. Hence, with the attainment of success being the ultimate aim of every entrepreneur, an in-depth understanding of how success in business is conceived by women at the small or micro level of business operations, becomes imperative.

The most widely used scholarly indicator of business performance or success, at the micro or small business operation, is growth (Bigsten & Gebreeyesus, 2007; Baum, 2001; Mead & Liedholm, 1998; Slevin & Covin, 1997). This use of growth as an indicator, conceptualizes business success in term of increase in the size of the business operation measured by the number of its employees (Baum & Locke, 2004). Thus, the growth in the firm's size has become of the strongest indicators of measuring business success (Bigsten & Gebreeyesus, 2007; Mead & Liedholm, 1998; Slevin & Covin, 1997). However, this use of growth indicator was hinged on the assumption that an increase in employment size would lead to higher profit level for the firm (McPherson, 1996) because, using other economic indicators of success may pose complications, especially at the micro business level where the firm lacks complete records of its financial operations (Garoma, 2012).

Subsequently, Cronin and Skinner (2015), in their study of an interface between marketing and finance used sales volume as the basis of measuring the success of a business, while De Carvalho, Ribeiro, Cirani, and Cintra (2016) conceive business success in terms of the organisation's resilience. Resilience refers to the firm's

innovative capacity and ability to renew itself over time, in order to survive for a longer period. However, the entrepreneur's ability to create a new organization through this process of innovation forms the pinnacle of entrepreneurship.

Ahmad et al. (2011a), have also in their study, conceive success in business as high operating skills, high skills in obtaining market share that suits the entrepreneur's sizes and capability, and the possession of high skills in the provision of more special service to the customers. Masuo, Fong, Yanagida, and Cabal (2001), entrepreneur's success encompasses the financial, or economic measures of sales, profitability, employees, returns on assets, and the rates of business survival, in addition to the non-pecuniary criteria of achievement, customer's satisfaction, and personal development. The use of business survival rate as an indicator of business success, have been reported to have positive correlation with business growth (Masuo, et al., 2001). Hence, the association between these two goes on to confirm that growing and surviving firms, are often times, the most successful ones.

McMullen and Shepherd (2006) attribute success in business to the attainment of wealth by the entrepreneurs. However, this notion of using wealth as an indicator of business success was refuted by Alstete (2008). According to Alstete (2008), the entrepreneurs' attainment of wealth should never be seen as an indicator of success. On this account, Alstete (2008) posits that though, the need for money is somewhat superficial as being the initial motivator of women going into businesses. However, being successful in business is conceived, more in terms of the intrinsic rewards (i.e., enjoyment of independence, control, job satisfaction, freedom, fulfilment, and personal rewards),

which the women entrepreneur derives for engaging in entrepreneurship as her own boss, than the extrinsic rewards (i.e., finance, firm growth).

Consistent with the Alstete's (2008) view, Walker and Brown (2004) argue that business success, especially at the micro or small business levels, and particularly that of women-owned enterprises, is not based on mere financial rewards but rather, on the owner's attainment of personal objectives (e.g., feelings of satisfaction with ones involvement in business, autonomy, and attainment work-life balance). Thus, these views of small business owners' perception of success are similar to that of women perspective of the concept. Consequently, studies in extant literature have confirmed the deferring perception of the concept of business success among genders. While the male entrepreneurs have been found to use the external standards assessment (i.e., recognition for accomplishment, or gaining of prestige), as the benchmark for their attainment of success in businesses, female entrepreneurs conceive success as an internal assessment of their being able to accomplish what they set out to achieve (Burger, 2008; Cliff, 1998).

Confirming the differing perceptions of business success between gender, Fenwick and Hutton (2000) comment on challenges posed by women entrepreneurs to the traditional economic indicators of measuring success. They contend that the challenge by women to the traditional economic indicators of success have the potentials of reshaping the models of business, the work place learning, and subjectivity at work. According to them, women conceives their success in business in terms of their children welfare, the ability to select their daily work-life activities, their satisfaction and fulfilment, their

perceived overall quality of life, their contributions to the communities in which they live in, and lastly, the reputations they were able to build in these communities.

Emerging from these deferring perceptions of the term ‘success’ between genders, and building on existing literature (see, Gill & Biger, 2012; Alasadi, 2007; Kompulla, 2004), where the term performance, growth and success, have been interchangeably used, this present study conceptualized firm or business performance or success, as women entrepreneurs’ success. This entrepreneurs’ success refers to the ability of women in micro and small businesses to survive and sustain their businesses (Lussier & Pfeifer, 2001), with less emphasis being placed on the financial or monetary aspect of business operations.

3.2.2. Entrepreneur, Entrepreneurship, and Entrepreneurial Process

3.2.1.1 Entrepreneur

The term entrepreneur connotes different meanings. It refers to a person who organizes, manages, and assumes the risks involves in the running of a business or an enterprise (dictionary.reference.com). Secondly, it is a concept associated with a person who goes into business with the aim of making profit. Although, Schumpeter (1934) contends that profit is not the main motive of running a business, it however, serves as a standard criterion upon which success in business is measured. Entrepreneurs often times, seen as the agents of change in every society. This is because they assumes all the risk that are associated with running a business. They serve as a catalyst, which provides the spark light for economic development (Berger, 1991).

Entrepreneurs are people endowed with the foresight of identifying the potential needs for goods and services of the consumers, and in this regard, they exercise personal initiative of organizing ventures by taking benefit of available opportunities. As sole decision makers of the organisation, they decide on what, how, and the level quantity of goods or services to be produced (Businessdictionary.com). According to Hisrich (2011), entrepreneurs are persons who develops business plans, acquired financial, human, and other forms of resources which are necessary to run and manage a business, and assumes the responsibility for its success or failure.

3.2.1.2 Entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship is a concept, which can be defined as the process involved in designing, launching and running of new businesses (see Baron, 2007; Reynolds, 2005). It is a concept that encompasses the capacity to identify and generate competitive business ideas, organize production, utilize resources, stimulate products or services development, manage business risks, and constantly working for the growth and development of the business (Yetisen, et al., 2015).

Alternatively, the term can be conceived as the intellectual capacity of an individual that is required in identifying and generating competitive business ideas, utilizing resources, organizing production, promoting products or services development, managing risks, and continuously, working for growth and development of the business (Irene, 2016). Entrepreneurship is a formulated concept that takes into cognizance, the entrepreneur's characteristics, in terms of what he or she does, and in terms of establishing relationship

between the existing business opportunities and people, who have the capability of exploiting them (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000).

3.2.1.3 Entrepreneurial Process

Entrepreneurial process refers to a set of different stages, which are involved in the planning and launching of new enterprises. These sets of stages include, discovery, developing a business plan, resourcing, managing, and harvesting (businessjargons.com, 2015). In line with the Moore's model, Bygrave (2004) conceives entrepreneurial process, as a set of stages or events, which follows one another in a sequential order. These stages include the idea or conception, the event that triggers the operations, implementation and growth.

Baron and Henry (2011), conceives the stages in the entrepreneurial process as one that begins with the motivation stage, after which it moves on to the opportunity identification stage, to resource acquisition stage, to performance, and eventually, to the success stage. However, Reynolds and White (1997) models conceives the stages involved in entrepreneurial process as a form of biological process and therefore, likened the opportunity perception, opportunity evaluation, enterprise creation, and business development stages of entrepreneurial process, to the biological child raising processes of conception, gestation, childhood, and adolescent stage respectively.

Consequently, Cardon, Zietsma, Saporito, Matherne, and Davis (2005) model proposed an entrepreneurial process as comprising conception, gestation, early infancy, infancy, childhood, growth, and maturity stage. This model of entrepreneurial process goes a bit further to break down the Reynolds and White's (1997) conception of the childhood

stage into early infancy, which corresponds to stages before business creation, and the infancy, which tallies with the business creation stage. This was then followed by the childhood stage which they conceive to be the initial stage of the business operation. However, in the Cardon's et al., (2005) model, business maturity stage was added to complement the Reynolds and White's (1997) adolescent stage, which they referred to as the business consolidation stage.

Furthermore, Barron and Ward (2004) models conceived entrepreneurial process as involving different series of activities, which begins with the opportunity identification, and ends with the solving of several problems, which may arise in the course of developing a new business. Similarly, Brockner, Higgins, and Low (2004) proposed eight stages of entrepreneurial process comprising the idea generation stage, idea evaluation stage, resource procurement stage, development stage, maturity stage, renovation stage, growth stage, and decline stage. However, the Wasdani and Mathew's (2014) model likened entrepreneurial process to an array of stages, which begins with conception stage, to the early stage, when the business is below three years, and late stage, when the business is above three years.

Apart from Baron and Henry's (2012) model, all other proposed models have fails to capture the various activities that takes place at each of the sequential stages of the entrepreneurial process. Thus, it is only the Baron and Henry's (2012) model that discusses motivation as a driving force in entrepreneurship, and also associate the stages involved in entrepreneurial process with business start-up and managerial activities.

However, being the most recent of all proposed models of entrepreneurial process and considering the fact that all the activities in each of the stage, are clearly defined by their names, this study therefore, follows the Sullivan & Meek's (2012) explanation of entrepreneurial process, which was based on the model proposed by Baron and Henry (2012). Sullivan & Meek (2012) identifies several individual and situational factors in entrepreneurial process that bears relevance to women entrepreneurship, which is the focus of this study.

Notwithstanding, the above the proposed model of entrepreneurial process, this study extends the Baron and Henry's (2012) model to include the exit stage, which was not capture by the model. This exit stage has been described by DeTienne (2010), as the final stage in the entrepreneurial process, where the entrepreneurs realized the benefits of their entrepreneurial efforts.

3.2.1.4 Stages of entrepreneurial process

Entrepreneurial process consists of several sequential stages. For the purpose of this study, the stages involve in Sullivan and Meek's (2013) Model of entrepreneurial process was adopted. This is because, apart from identifying several individual and situational factors, the stages bear relevance to women entrepreneurs, which is the focus of this present study. These stages are discussed in the following sequential order.

Motivation stage: This stage comprises both individual and situational factors, which impels one into starting a business. Some of these individual factors are the entrepreneur's desire for independence, recognition, self-realisation, and financial success. One important issue that motivates women into entrepreneurship focused on the

issue job design. Entrepreneurship provide solutions to so many challenges, such as unfavorable working conditions and work-family conflict, faced by women in the traditional job settings.

In addition, women who have negative feelings toward their supervisors are likely to be motivated to go into entrepreneurship, if they have the conviction of doing better in it (Sullivan & Meek, 2012). Likewise, frustrations, in terms career advancement opportunities resulting from ‘glass ceilings’ in organizations has propels women to pursue a new career in entrepreneurship (Buttner & Moore, 1997).

In term of maintaining a balance between work-family conflict, research have shown that women with children expresses more preferences for family related motivators, compare to their men counterpart (DeMartino & Barbato, 2003). Hence, women’s childcare responsibility makes them to look onto entrepreneurship as a mechanism for a flexible lifestyle.

In assessing other individual motivating factors, such as, the needs for recognition, innovation, financial success, independence, and personality traits, studies have shown that women are less motivated to financial success and innovation than men (Carter, Shaw, Lam, and Wilson, 2007). Although, women value financial success as a rewards for their entrepreneurial efforts, their needs for independence remains paramount (Alstete (2008). In terms of personality, the extraversion and neuroticism of the Big Five personality traits were found to be the most important factors that motivates women’s entrepreneurial activities (Zhang, et al., 2009). Also, autonomy, independence, and self-

actualisation, were among the factors found to be highly cherished by women entrepreneurs (Medina, De la Garza, & Cheín, (2013).

In term of situational factors, entrepreneur's background, support from the family, and the presence of favourable governmental policies for entrepreneurship support, are considered as motivating factors to entrepreneurship. Regarding the entrepreneur's background, studies have shown that women whose mothers are entrepreneur are motivated to becoming entrepreneur than men (Malach-Pines & Schwartz, 2008), and likewise, those whose husbands are self-employed (Vadnjal, & Vadnjal, 2013).

Although, the desire by women for autonomy/independence is highly cherished, family support may hamper this values in some certain culture, specifically, in societies where women decision for entrepreneurship are subject to approval from their spouses as they are seen as 'legal minors' (Chamlou, Klapper, & Muzi, 2008). This situational factor can, in the end, motivates women to overcome their obstacle by gaining autonomy/independence from their spouses (Sullivan & Meek, 2012).

Opportunity recognition stage: This stage comprises the internal and external factors. The internal factors relate to ways the women previous work-life experiences influence their opportunity identification and the types of opportunities they pursue (DeTienne & Chandler, 2007). However, the women's social contact networks, which helps in opportunities identification (Harrison & Mason, 2007), serves as the external factors. As a result of this, women entrepreneurs tend to concentrate more in the areas where they conventionally pick interest (Sullivan & Meek, 2012).

In relation to the social contact network, studies have shown that both men and women entrepreneurs exploits their social networks for opportunity identification. However, women rely more on help from the family for opportunity identification than the men (Greve & Salaff, 2003). Looking at the previous work-life experiences, studies have shown that women with experiences in retail work relates positively, to a number of opportunities they have identified, while as for the men, the number of opportunities identified were found to influence their number of start-ups (DeTienne & Chandler, 2007). Although, both men and women adopt different processes in identifying opportunities, women use the information obtained from their previous work to identify the needs of their customers, while men use their financial asset as a means of identifying and serving the unmet needs of the new markets.

Resource acquisition stage: The Baron and Henry's (2011) model examines how the individual's actions, skills, and behaviour influences the individual's acquisition of entrepreneurial resources by looking at how the entrepreneurs' social network and human resource management practices affects the acquisition of resources. However, studies have shown that women entrepreneurs used several activities to gain information, in addition to financial, human, and tangible resources. For instance, women with wide social networks, which comprises family members who possessed entrepreneurial experience, were found to stands a better chance of having access to information that can help in the initial launching, and subsequent operation of the business ventures (Greve & Salaff, 2003).

Consequently, regarding the attraction and retention of qualified human resources, studies have shown that women entrepreneurs employs different behaviour. For

instance, women are seen to possess the ability to manage their employees through the use of relational management style. This management style helps the women entrepreneurs to grow, and it also enhance a good working relationship between the employees and the suppliers (Buttner, 2001).

In terms of financial acquisition, women participate in personal savings to finance their businesses (Kwong, Jones-Evans, & Thompson, 2012). However, women activities in networking has greatly impact their access to financing. Carter, et al. (2007) and Singh and Lucas (2005), have found that women entrepreneurs obtain most their funding through strong networking with families and friends.

Performance/Success Stage: This refers to stage in the business life which is characterized by both the founders and organizational outcomes, both of which corresponds to health and career satisfaction of the entrepreneurs, and firm's performance respectively (Baron & Henry, 2012). With respect to women, Sullivan and Meek (2012) identify five categories of success that are peculiar to women entrepreneurs. These are namely, launching of successful venture, the health and psychological outcomes of the founders, the founder's income or firm's profitability, the firm's growth and firm's survival.

However, Weber (2014) perceives success as comprising both the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. While the intrinsic motivation relates the entrepreneur's satisfaction, the extrinsic motivation, covers the business financial, economic and operational profits. Hence, a significant perception of gender differences was observed by Weber (2014)

between male and female in the valuation of the intrinsic (i.e., work hours flexibility, family life, and dedication to work) and extrinsic motivation.

Exit stage: This stage according to DeTienne (2010), is a very important stage in the life of the business. It describes the activities that takes place when the entrepreneur eventually quit the business. This stage corresponds to a period in the business life, when the entrepreneur starts harvesting the profits from the proceeds of his or her entrepreneurial efforts. It is a stage when the entrepreneurs make strategic decisions on either, to sell the business venture for attractive earnings (DeTienne (2010).

3.2.3 Factors Influencing Women Entrepreneurs' Business Success

The emergence of women in the recent literature of entrepreneurship has become one of the driving force in the economic growth and development of developing countries (Terjesen & Amoros, 2010). Hence, an understanding of the factors that influence the success of women entrepreneurs are of importance in every social and economic setting. Although, Minniti and Naude (2012) have alluded to the variance in the perception of the term success between men and women entrepreneurs, to the differences in their socio-economic behaviour, certain individual (or internal) and environment (or external) factors, have been identified to exert great influence on the success of women-owned enterprises.

Starting with the individual (or internal) level factors, Mitchelmore and Rowley (2013) propose competencies as one of the internal factors that influences the business success of an entrepreneur. Competencies refer to a cluster of factors, which are rooted in the individual background, and those that are acquired through learning. These

competencies that are rooted in the individual background comprises personality, individual characteristics, social role, attitudes, and self-image of the individual, while those learned are acquired through though education, work experience, and training. Those learned or acquired competencies are refers to skills, knowledge, and experience.

These clusters of competencies are grouped into entrepreneurial, managerial, labour, personality characteristics, educational level, and personal experience (Mitchelmore & Rowley, 2013). However, studies in the extant literature have shown that these individual or internal factors' competencies have positively influenced the success of business enterprises, either from the empirical or theoretical point of view (Cabrera & Mauricio, 2017; Mitchelmore & Rowley, 2013). These set individual (internal) factors can be greatly influenced by the entrepreneur's level of education. Hence, a supportive educational system serves as an important conduit through which individual level success factors is achieved.

Consequently, the external (environmental) level factors that influence entrepreneur's success are grouped into the micro, meso, and macro environmental levels (Cabrera & Mauricio, 2017). These environmental level factors are, sometimes referred to as the pull factors, which often attracts women into entrepreneurship (Dawson & Henley, 2012).

At the micro environment level entrepreneur, success in business are greatly influenced by the factors such as, individual's personal contact networking and family supports. This personal contact networking makes it easy for the women entrepreneurs to identify

existing opportunities in the environment and then mobilise necessary supports and resources for the business start-up (Cabrera & Mauricio, 2017).

Consequently, the contacts networking factor involves developing a close relationship and long-lasting ties with one's customers, suppliers, and other collaborators, that are involved in the successful running of the business, and who may also form part of the business contacts' networking. However, the family supports factor refers to the emotional backings received by women entrepreneurs from members of their family when venturing into entrepreneurship. While this emotional backing serves as a driving-force to successful entrepreneurship, it can also impact negatively on the success of the business, by limiting the entrepreneur's dedication and time given to the ventures (Cabrera & Mauricio, 2017).

Additionally, the entrepreneur's success at the meso environment level is achieved, when the existing institutional framework positively influences some aspect of the cultural features, which attributes certain values to women (Cabrera & Mauricio, 2017). Nevertheless, if the institutionalised rules and regulations in a country are in tune with the existing legal and governmental policies, which promotes women entrepreneurship, this could favour entrepreneur's motivation and opportunity identification, which in turn, results in successful business operations.

Lastly, at the macro environment level, the focus is on favourable government policies and cultural features that impact greatly on women ventures, which increase their level of aspirations and makes them become more productive. However, the absence of these

lofty policies on the other hand, makes women entrepreneurs continue in their small, subsistence, and self-employed entrepreneurship (Cabrera & Mauricio, 2017).

3.2.4 Measures of Entrepreneurs' Business Success

With the ultimate goal of every entrepreneurial efforts being geared towards the attainment of success in their business operations, and following the differing ways success has been perceived, having the knowledge of how success is measured by the entrepreneurs would give a clearer understanding of the concept. Nevertheless, a clear understanding of what constitutes success to micro, small and medium enterprise (SMEs) owners is pertinent to identifying the factors that relate to it, or that can help differentiate between successful entrepreneurs from non-successful ones (Watson, 2003).

The concept of business success at the small and micro business owners is a multidimensional phenomenon which can be measured through the use of diverse parameters or indicators (Blackburn, Hart, & Wainwright, 2013; Rosli, 2011; Alasadi, 2007; Wiklund & Shepherd, 2005b; Du Rietz & Henrekson, 2000). This is because small or micro firms pursue diverse objectives, which makes their measure of success to vary along these lines of thought (Simpson, Padmore, & Newman, 2012).

However, the measure of business success can be seen as a multidimensional, comprising the multiple criteria of financial and non-financial characters (Gorgievski, Ascalon, & Stephan, 2011; Crook et al., 2011; Dej, 2010; Orser & Dyke, 2009). Each of this character can further be assessed using a set of the multiple success indicators of

both organizational and psychological characters respectively (Laguna, Wiechetek, & Talik, 2012).

Additionally, viewing from the within the realm of the traditional economic approach to the study of entrepreneurship, the financial performance indicators of the firm are the mostly widely measures in assessing success of a business (Laguna, et al., 2012). The use of these multiple success indicators of organizational performance characters, which have been compounded into the hard economic or financial measures (e.g., sales turnover, revenue, profits, growth, market share, and return on investment) have sometimes been regarded as the “male” attitudes of assessing of business performance (Chell & Baines, 2014). This measure has however, for long been the basis for assessing the success of a business enterprise (Baron, 2007).

Furthermore, these sets of organization's performance indicators, can be objectively determined, especially in situation where the data about the indicators are readily available from the firms accounting or financial records (Richard, Devinney, Yip, & Johnson, 2009). However, most often time, researchers make recourse to the subjective approach of assessing these parameters, specifically in instances where data on these indicators are scarcely available, as it has often been the case with most small and micro businesses (Laguna, et al., 2012). This data constraint has made the subjective assessment of success very common among micro, small and medium business enterprise and this is mostly achieved by comparing the firm's financial indicators with that of its competitors (Richard, et al., 2009).

In their critique of this hard economic measures of performance, Marlow and Strange (1994) assert that this standard approach to performance, which considers male experience as norm and ignores women, would lead to the presumption that 'women act from similar motivations and seek for similar rewards from entrepreneurial activity as their male counterparts (p. 173). Hence, on the basis of this assertion, they (i.e., Marlow & Strange, 1994) emphasized on some other extraneous factors which are extremely pertinent to women, and then argued that women should not be assessed using the conventional economic parameters of success, but instead their assessment should be on their own subjective standard.

Following this line of argument of Marlow & Strange (1994), the non-financial success indicators of business success, which is subjective in nature, has then become the standard upon which women success in business is assessed (Walker & Brown, 2004; Brush & Hisrich, 2000). This measure of success focused on the psychological characters of the entrepreneurs in its assessment of business success. The focus of this success indicator is on the importance of the entrepreneur's personal goals, motivation, and aspirations (Gorgievski et al., 2011; Dej, 2010).

Nevertheless, the psychological approach of assessing business success assumes the entrepreneurs' achievement of valued outcomes, such as, autonomy, independence, personal initiative or work-family, to be their ultimate source of business success (Laguna, et al., 2012). Hence, it is this subjective criterion that forms the basis of assessing business success of women entrepreneurs (Walker & Brown, 2004; Brush & Hisrich, 2000; Buttner & Moore, 1997). Further elaborations on these success criteria,

which, inter alia, forms the basis of determining successful entrepreneurs from the non-successful ones, are provided in the subsequent subsections.

3.2.4.1 Financial Measure of Entrepreneurs' success

Traditionally, business success is conceptualized in terms of the firm's financial performance as typified by the use of hard economic measures of growth, profitability, number of employees, sales turnover, or return on investment (Walker & Brown, 2004; Simpson et al., 2004; Greenbank, 2001). Moreover, researchers (Wiklund & Shepherd, 2005a; Blackburn *et al.* 2013) have used the term growth as a proxy for measuring the performance of small firms. However, a measure of success using this criterion is seen to assume growth to be the ultimate aim of every business owner, and by this measure, successful entrepreneurs are often seen as those whose business profit level, turnover, or number of employees, has increased (Reijonen & Komppula, 2007).

Nevertheless, it must be stressed that using employment growth as measure of success does not apply to all businesses as there exist some handful of small business owners who have deliberately refrained from taking in employees into their businesses (Baines, Wheelock, & Abrams, 1997). A quite typical feature of such types of businesses is that, apart from owner or any of their family members, who assist in the running of the business, creating job for outsiders has neither been the goal nor motivation for which the business was established (Smallbone & Wyer, 2000).

Consequently, the notion of using employee's number as one of the criteria of business success does not always apply to all businesses as the goal of some business owners is neither to grow their businesses nor maximize profits (Walker & Brown, 2004). This

entrepreneur's decision however, implies that financial reward has neither been their primary goal, nor the main motive behind the establishment of these ventures. However, this assertion often holds true, especially in the case of some small scale businesses whose motivation for the establishment is solely on the achievement of the owners personal goal (Walker & Brown 2004).

Additionally, researchers (Buttner & Moore, 1997; Chandler & Hanks, 1994; Hall & Fulshaw, 1993) have also supported the use of the traditional financial indicators as a measure of business success. These scholars have, in their study on venture performance, strictly emphasized on the use of financial indicators of success, in forms of cash flows, market shares, sales growth and net worth. Also, Ansoff (1965) argue that return on investment (ROI) is the most commonly and widely acceptable yardstick for measuring business success.

Furthermore, Perren (2000) is of the view that success in business serves as a reflective of its level of growth which manifests in the increase of its sales and revenue figures, while Hall and Fulshaw (1993) argue on the use of business profitability and growth as the only two measures of success. These two economic indicators, have often time referred to as "profit maximization" in the economic jargon (Jarvis et al., 2000), and they have been widely used as a measure of business success due to the easiness with which they can be applied and administered (Barkhman et al., 1996; Ibrahim & Godwin, 1986).

Although, these economic performance-related outcomes of business ventures have often been considered to be appropriate measure of the entrepreneur's success (Walker

& Brown, 2004), Jennings and Beaver (1997) argue that success in business goes beyond the quest for money or a mere pursuit of financial goal. They assert that there exists some other aspect of intrinsic rewards which business owners always seek to achieve, and on the basis of this argument, they submit that:

“Contrary to popular belief and on a great deal of economic theory, money and the pursuit of personal financial fortune is not as significant as the desire for personal involvement, responsibility, and the independent quality and lifestyle which small business owner-managers strive to achieve. Consequently, the attainment of these objectives becomes one of the principal criteria for success as defined by the entrepreneur/owner manager” (p.63).

Corroborating the argument of these researchers (i.e., Walker & Brown, 2004; Jennings & Beaver, 1997), Buttner & Moore (1997) argue that business success should not be measured only on the basis of mere financial parameters. It is from this ensuing argument that Wiklund (2006) advocates on the use of both the financial and non-financial measures of business success and argue that the combination of these two measures provide a richer description of a firm actual performance. This view of Wiklund (2006) was supported by Murphy, Trailer, and Hill (1996), who assert, in the context of small and medium businesses, that:

Organisational performance is composed of multiple dimensions. Financial measures are necessary but not sufficient to capture total organisational performance. Thus, future studies should continue to include financial measures, but non-financial measures need to be emphasized as well. (p.22).

The basis for this argument is that business success, especially at the micro and small business levels, and particularly of the women-owned enterprises, are not based on mere financial outcomes, but on the owner's attainment of their personal objectives, some of which are the feelings of satisfaction with ones involvement in the business, autonomy, and attainment work-life balance, instead of focusing mere financial outcome of the business (Walker & Brown, 2004). Moreover, this view of Murphy's et al. (1996) was

later amplified by Beaver (2002), who posits that, money is not the prime motivator for many entrepreneurs in business, but it rather serves as a by-product of having the personal freedom of taking charge of one's own future.

It can however be concluded from the foregoing arguments that having good economic performance is not only the main objectives of running a business, as some entrepreneurs have deemed themselves as being successful even, without ever achieving any significant level of financial or monetary rewards. This is because their perception of success goes beyond the quest for monetary or financial benefits (Lipper, 1988). Such is the case of women entrepreneurs, whose success in business is based on the intrinsic goals of being independent, committed to work, and the flexibility of the work family interface (Alstete, 2008; Walker & Brown, 2004; Brush & Hisrich, 2000). It is therefore, this inherent problem of using the traditional (financial) measures in assessing entrepreneurs' business success across genders and businesses, specifically that of women's micro or small business entrepreneurs (Walker & Brown, 2004; Chell & Baines, 2014; Buttner & moore, 1997) that paved way for the quest of exploring the non-financial measures of business success.

3.2.4.2 Non-financial Measure of Entrepreneurs' Business success

The deferring perceptions of the term success among entrepreneurs, establishes the subjective nature of the concept of success in the field of entrepreneurship. All entrepreneurs have their own perceptions of what the term success means to them, and how it should be measured. Hence, it has been argued that financial measures alone are not sufficient for making decisions about business success of modern firms, and this

give room for the need to explore other non-financial measures of success too (Zaman, 2004).

The non-financial measures of entrepreneur's success find expression in job satisfaction, work flexibility, autonomy, ability to balance between work life, and family responsibilities, and flexibility enjoyed by the entrepreneurs (Walker & Brown, 2004). In this line of thought, Toledo-López, Díaz-Pichardo, Jiménez-Castañeda, & Sánchez-Medina (2012) argue that the most viable indicators for measuring business success at the micro business level are the non-financial measures. Additionally, some researchers such as, (Haber & Reichel, 2005; Paige & Littrell, 2002) also shared this view by asserting that non-financial measures of success significantly impact the entrepreneurs' perception of success more than the financial measures.

Furthermore, this argument on non-financial measures of success is consistent with the submission of Beavers (2002) who asserts that, to many entrepreneurs, money is not the prime motivator of starting a business but rather, their desire for freedom and to take charge of their own future. Some empirical evidence of instances where the prime motives of going into business were neither due to money nor financial rewards find expression in some of the reasons which drive women into starting their own businesses.

A well-documented report on the reasons that motivate women into starting their own businesses is their desire to balance up their domestic responsibilities (Buttner & Moore, 1997; Loscocco, 1997). This therefore, explains the reason why a predominant aspect of women business success is measured in non-financial terms. According to Ahmad & Seet (2006), some of the non-financial indicators upon which women entrepreneurs

measure their success in business take the forms of self-fulfillment, goal achievement, autonomy, job satisfaction, customer's satisfaction, satisfaction with one's personal involvement, and desire for challenges.

A similar study conducted to substantiate the above argument on use of non-financial measure to determine success can be found in a research conducted by Walker and Brown (2004) with the aim of identifying the important business success factors of some 290 small firm owners in Western Australia. This study employed both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection, and the findings revealed that, even though both the financial and non-financial measures of success are important, in the case of small business ventures for instance, the non-financial measures of personal satisfaction and achievement, flexibility in life-style, and pride in one's job take precedence over the desire for wealth creation.

Additionally, Buttner and Moore (1997) conducted a study with a view to investigate the reasons why 129 women at the professional and executive cadres of organizations quit their jobs to start their own businesses. Their findings revealed that the desire for challenges, self-determination, and the need to balance work and family responsibilities, are some of the motivating factors that influenced them to become entrepreneurs. Other personal factors adduced as being the motivating force of going into business are the blockade to female career advancement, gender discriminations at work, and organizations dynamics, which most women often experienced in large organizations (Buttner & Moore, 1997). Findings from this study further buttressed the reason why women success in business is measured in terms of the non-financial indicators.

Another empirical evidence in literature on why women entrepreneurs preferred the non-financial measure of business success were hinged on their low performance in the quantitative financial criteria of success (e.g., profitability, number of employees, and sales turnover) in relation to their men counterpart (Rani & Hashim, 2017). However, a significant proportion of women are not into business because of its financial gains (Buttner & Moore, 1997), but rather, they see the establishment of business ventures as an avenue of pursuing their intrinsic goals of being independent, committed to work, and flexibility of the work family interface (Brush & Hisrich, 2000).

In buttressing the above submissions, several researchers on business success have shown that, women entrepreneurs are less successful in their businesses in relation to that of men entrepreneurs. This is often the case especially, when the economic criteria of success, such as growth, performance, sales turnover, and profitability are used as a measure of success (Powell & Eddleston, 2008; Loscocco, 1997). However, one commonly cited reason to justify this differential is that, women owned businesses, unlike men, are often launched with less human, financial and social capital, and by this put women-owned entrepreneurial ventures into a relatively disadvantaged position (Ahl, 2006).

Additionally, studies in extant literatures have also revealed that the information about these two indicators of business success can be obtained through a self-reported data. Moreover, a measure of the entrepreneur business success obtained through these channels, have been deemed to be of more reliable in measuring business success (Rauch et al., 2009) and are found to correlates with archival data (Chandler & Hanks, 1993). In line with these later submissions, and with a focus on women entrepreneurs,

this study adopts the technique of self-reported data in assessing the business success of women entrepreneurs.

All these arguments attest to the reasons why women's success in business is assessed, more in relation to their attainment of intrinsic goals, rather than being on the basis of the usual economic or financial measures of business success. Nevertheless, whichever measure of success is proffered, the important issue is the survival and continued existence of a business. Hence, Marlow and Strange (1994), once cautioned on the need for businesses to be financially viable in order to ensure their continued existence, since survival in a business is only guaranteed, when the business is financially solvent.

In conclusion, while some studies have assessed entrepreneurs' business success on the basis of the traditional economic or financial measures, using either, the objective or subjective measures of financial indicators as their measures, this present study uses a subjective assessment of the psychological characters of the non-financial indicators of business success (Rani & Hashim, 2017; Gorgievski, et al., 2011; Dej, 2010). This choice of non-financial measures of the entrepreneurs' success was accentuated by the motives of the intrinsic goals of being independent, personal freedom and rewards, job satisfaction, being one's own boss, and flexibility of work family interface that often propels women into engaging in entrepreneurship (Alstete, 2008; Brush & Hisrich, 2000). It is however, of interest to note that it is the attainment of these psychological objectives, which forms the cardinal goal of women in entrepreneurship (Walker & Brown, 2004).

3.3 Entrepreneurial Competencies

3.3.1 Concept of Entrepreneurial Competencies

The term competency or competencies has become one of challenging issue in the field of entrepreneurship literature. This is however, due to the existence of variant definitions of the concept (Hayton & Kelley, 2006; Hoffman, 1999). More to this challenge is the way some terms such as “skills”, “acumen”, “expertise” and “competency” are interchangeably used as having same meaning in literature (Smith & Morse, 2005). However, the basic argument often rests on the confusion between use of term competency or competencies, which is a behavior exhibited by individual, and competence, which is the minimum standard requirement for performing a certain task (Strebler, Robinson & Heron, 1997).

However, distinction between these two concepts have been made by some scholars. Rowe (1995) perceives competency or competencies as the behavior under which performance is attained, in contrast to competence, which refers to skills or a standard of performance. Another distinction between these concepts was that proffered by Mitchelmore & Rowley (2010). They assert that competency(ies), as developed in the US, and in line with the work of Boyatzis (1982) to has essentially, refer to the personal traits, knowledge, skills and motives possessed by the employees, which result in superior managerial performance. In contrast to this is competence from the UK perspective, which presents a description of the task of a person working in a certain occupational area is expected to do, or an action, outcome or behavior expected of a person.

A further distinguishing feature between these two concepts were further proffered by Mitchelmore and Rowley (2010) who, distinctively regard competence as an evaluation of performance in a definite domain of activity, and then define competencies as a set of things that are often used to characterize individuals and their behaviors. Strebler et al. (1997) see competencies as expressing behaviors while competence expresses standard. These two terms, competencies and competence, are being used by firms in the private and public sectors respectively. In line with these distinctions between the two concepts, one can then expatiate on the various ways competencies have been perceived by various researchers in literature.

Hoffman (1999) conceptualized competencies from three differing positions. These positions viewed competencies as either being an observable performance, a standard of an outcome, or as the underlying attributes of an individual. However, the third of these differing positions has been the most widely adopted concept of entrepreneurial competencies in the field of entrepreneurship.

Additionally, entrepreneurial competencies have been identified as comprising a specific group of competencies, which are relevant to the exercise of a successful entrepreneurship. According to Man, Lau and Chan (2002), entrepreneurial competencies are required in order to start a business, while the managerial skills are needed to grow it. They further assert that competencies in both areas are essential for one to become a competent entrepreneur.

Although these definitions of competencies are in exhaustive, Table 3.1 below depicts some existing variant definitions of the concept as found in the extant literature of management and entrepreneurship studies and compiled by the researcher.

Table 3.1
Definitions of Competencies

Scholars	Definitions of Competencies
Boyatzis (1982)	Underlying characteristics of a person in that it may be a motive, trait, skill, aspect of one's image or social role, or a body of knowledge which he or she uses (p. 21)
Parry (1998)	A cluster of related knowledge, attitudes, and skills that, (1) affects a major part of one's job, (2) correlates with performance on the job, and (3) can be improved via training and development (p. 60)
Woodruffe (1992)	The set of behavior pattern that the incumbent need to bring to a position in order perform its task and functions with competence
Bird (1995)	Underlying characteristics such as generic specific knowledge, motives, traits, self-images, social roles, and skills which result in venture birth, survival, and/or growth" (p. 51).
Thompson et al. (1997)	Integrated sets of behavior, which can be directed towards successful goal accomplishment.
Lucia and Lepsinger (1999)	... a cluster of related knowledge, skills, and attitudes that affects a major part of one's job (a role or responsibility), that correlates with performance on the job, that can be measured against well-accepted standards, and that can be improved via training and development." (P. 1)
Tett, Gutterman, Bleier, and Murphy (2000)	an identifiable aspect of prospective work behavior attributable to the individual (p. 215)
Fleury and Fleury (2001)	competency as "a recognized know how to act responsibly which implies in mobilizing, integrating, transferring knowledge, skills and resources which adds economic value to the organization and social value to the individual" (p.188)
Brophy and Kiely (2002)	Skill, knowledge, behavior and attitudes required to perform a role effectively (p. 167)
Baum, Locke, & Smith, (2001)	Baum et al. (2001) on their part perceived it as "individual characteristics such as knowledge, skills, and/or abilities required to perform a specific job" (p. 293)
Man, et al. (2002)	Entrepreneurial competencies are considered a higher-level characteristic encompassing personality traits, skills and knowledge, and therefore can be seen as the total ability of the entrepreneur to perform a job role successfully (124)
Kiggundu (2002)	it amounts to "the total sum of entrepreneurs' attributes such as attitudes, beliefs, knowledge, skills, abilities, personality, expertise and behavioral tendencies needed for successful and sustaining entrepreneurship" (p. 244)

Source: Own compilation

However, scholars in extant literature often argue that the competencies required by managers differ from that of entrepreneurs, with that of latter being more complex than that of the former (Busenitz & Barney, 1997). Along this line of argument, Hodgetts and

Kuratko (2001) assert that managing a business requires the combination of these two, as both of them complement each other, making the entrepreneur's ability to blend these two, very critical to business success. This complementarity of function explains the similarities of tasks and roles performed by the entrepreneurs and managers, especially at the small and micro levels of business operations.

Additionally, competencies are seen as one of the important managerial theory that has gained relevance in the field of entrepreneurship. It serves as one of the popular methods of understanding entrepreneurial characteristics (Priyanto & Sandjojo, 2005; Man et al., 2002; Baum et al., 2001; Chandler & Jansen, 1992). The concept was popularized by Boyatzis (1982) who defines competency as “a capacity that exists in a person that leads to behavior that meets the job demands within the parameters of organizational environment, and that, in turn brings about desired results.” This definition followed, after a study of over 2000 managers from where, over hundred potential competencies were identified and assessed.

Based on the Boyatzis's (1982) discovery, competencies are seen as the underlying characteristics, which individuals bring to job, and which can result in effective and/or superior performance in the job. Building on Boyatzis's (1982) discovery, Bird (1995) defines entrepreneurial competencies as “underlying characteristics such as generic specific knowledge, motives, traits, self-images, social roles, and skills which result in venture birth, survival, and/or growth” (p. 51).

Furthermore, Man & Lau (2005) characterize competency as being of a dual origin. This duality have been re-classified classified by Muzychenko and Sae (2004), into both the

innate and acquired competencies. The innate competencies were found to be deeply rooted in the entrepreneur's background. They include factors, such as, personality, traits, attitudes, self-image, and social role, all of which are often termed as the "internalized elements" (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1997), the acquired competency on the other hand, are seen as those competencies that are being learnt or acquired at work, either through a practical learning or training programs, work experience and education. However, these acquired competencies take the form of knowledge, skills, and experience, and are sometimes, referred to as the "externalized elements".

However, researchers (Man & Lau, 2005; Garavan & McGuire, 2001) are of the opinion that these components of the internalized elements of competencies are difficult to change. For even though they can be cultivated by an individual, it takes longer time for them to become effective. In contrast to this however, are components of the externalized elements, which can be easily acquired either, through educational programs or training, and it thus, requires an individual's constant practice for it to become effective.

Chandler and Jansen (1992) offered another approach to the study of entrepreneurial competencies. This approach explores the entrepreneur's competencies in terms of the roles played by the entrepreneur as an owner/manager of a business. However, extant literatures on entrepreneurship have shown that entrepreneurs, particularly those involved in small and micro business (SMEs), engage in three important roles, which are the managerial, entrepreneurial, and technical or functional roles (Beaver & Jennings, 2005; Baum & Locke, 2004; Chandler & Jansen, 1992).

The first of which is the entrepreneurial role entails the entrepreneur's performance of various activities such as, creating challenging but achievable vision, formulation of strategies, scanning the environment for high quality opportunities, perceiving unmet customers' needs, and producing quality products or services (Thompson, 1999; Chandler & Hanks, 1994; Chandler & Jansen, 1992). Achieving this entrepreneurial role therefore, requires strong commitment and dedication on the part of an entrepreneur (McClelland, 1987). This approach equally entails the entrepreneur's ability to recognize and envision taking advantage of opportunity, and the drive to see venture through to its fruition (Chandler & Jansen, 1992). Part of this entrepreneurial role manifests in the entrepreneur's long hours of work, most especially during the startup years of the business operation (Thompson et al., 1997).

In addition to the above, the entrepreneurial role requires the entrepreneur to have a strong commitment (Man & Lau, 2005), engage in innovativeness and creativity (Thompson, 1999), and to possess the conceptual capability to seek, recognize, evaluate, and grasp opportunities and to lastly, transform this opportunities into a profitable outcome (Thompson, Stuart, & Lindsay, 1997). According to Thompson (1999), ~~an~~ entrepreneur is someone with a vision who spots a new opportunity and is minded to act on it and start something" (p. 209). Corroborating this assertion, Wang and Ang (2004) opine that the entrepreneur's ability to choose superior opportunities and formulate suitable strategies in turning of opportunities into reality greatly influence the performance of a venture.

Commenting on this entrepreneurial role, Tracy (2005) perceives it as a continuous search for customer's needs, which are often achieved through the offering of products

and services that are more attractive, in comparison to those being offered by the competitors. Achieving this feat therefore, involves the use of different tactics and strategies which are necessary to commercialize the products or services. Thus, entrepreneurs must be ready to employ different strategies in their pursuit of a profitable outcome by producing high quality products or services through their creativity, energy, and motivation (Baum & Locke, 2004). All these demand that the entrepreneur be well equipped with the relevant competencies necessary to achieve the business goals in order to increase their chances of success.

The second role, which is the entrepreneur's managerial role, serves as a reflective of the customary roles of managers in the organization. Being the sole owner-manager who controls the firm, entrepreneurs, especially at the small and micro business levels, perform several managerial functions of planning, organizing, directing, and controlling both human and material resources in the organization (Chandler & Jansen, 1992).

However, the planning function entails devising a systematic process of achieving the goals and objectives of the organization, with the organizing function involving the arrangement of all necessary resources (people, technology, money, information, facilities and equipment, materials and supplies) needed to execute the plan (Chandler & Hanks, 1994). The directing function involves the processes of leading, guiding and motivating the employees towards achieving the organization goals, while controlling function entails proper monitoring of the firm's operations to ensure that performance conforms to the actual plan, and where it does not, necessary corrective actions are taken.

Additionally, the entrepreneur's managerial role also requires that the entrepreneur be sound in communication and interpersonal skills, by establishing relationships and interacting with others. Hence, Mintzberg (1973), argues that the performance of managerial functions requires the manager's capacity to act several other roles such as, figurehead, leader, negotiator, liaison, disturbance handler, spokesperson and disseminator. Chandler and Hanks (1994) posit that the managerial role calls for entrepreneurial activities such as leading and motivating the employees, delegation of tasks, and managing employee relations, all of which require good interpersonal skills from the entrepreneurs. While organizing and building of relationship form an aspect of the entrepreneur's managerial role, it is important for entrepreneurs to possess these competencies in order to enhance their success in business.

Lastly, as an owner/manager of the business, the entrepreneurs especially, at the small and micro levels of business operation, engaged in functional/technical role. This role requires the entrepreneurs to have a technical knowledge in addition to their ability to use certain tools (Winterton, 2002; Baum, 1995; Chandler & Jansen, 1992). Having the knowledge of a job-related activities is an important requirement of an entrepreneur (Winterton, 2002; Baum, 1995), as the possession of this knowledge enables them take decisions relating to the business and its operating system. This technical skill helps to facilitate the handling of business related activities in which specific expertise are required, and also in training of the employees on tasks that relates to the business. Entrepreneurs are therefore, required to possess these technical competencies in order to attain success in their businesses.

As a sequel to the Chandler and Jansen (1992) three-tier categorization of entrepreneurial competencies, Man et al. (2002) conceptualized entrepreneurial competencies as higher-level individual characteristics, which encompasses the personality traits, knowledge, and skills, and comprises the total personal ability of the entrepreneur to perform a specific job role successfully. On the basis of this conceptualization, Man et al. (2002) characterized entrepreneurial competencies as comprising six dimensions. Due to its comprehensiveness, these six competencies areas have however, become the basis for further categorization of entrepreneurial competencies identified by other researchers. These competency areas are: opportunity, organizing, strategic, commitment, conceptual, and relationship competencies.

Furthermore, the focus of entrepreneurial competencies, at the micro or small level of business operation, have being on studying the characteristics of the individual entrepreneur, who holds the dual responsibilities of owner-manager in the business (Gibb, 2005; McGregor & Tweed, 2001). Hence, the entrepreneurial competencies conceived, at this level of business operation are the individual's characteristics, which comprise their attitudes and behaviors that would assist them in achieving and maintaining success in their businesses.

Specifically, these comprises the individual's traits, motives, self-image, skills, attitudes, behavior, and knowledge (Brophy & Kiely, 2002; Boyatzis, 1982). While most entrepreneurs are not aware of the significant role of competencies in business performance, some studies have shown that they are indispensable in the attainment of business success (Garcia-Zambrano, Rodríguez-Castellanos, & Garcia-Merino, 2014; Ahmed, Rafiq, & Saad, 2003). Thus, entrepreneurial competencies have been shown to

relate to business success (Mitchelmore & Rowley, 2010), and hence, entrepreneurs must pay special attention to this by improving their competencies in order to boost the success of their businesses.

Conclusively, entrepreneurial competencies are conceived as comprising the entrepreneur's motives, traits, attitudes, self-image, behavior, skills, knowledge, and ability (Boyatzis, 1982; Bird, 1995). Specifically, it is conceptualized as individual characteristics, which comprises the attitudes and behaviors that enables the entrepreneurs to achieve and maintain success in their businesses (Man et al., 2002).

Operationally, the categorization of entrepreneurial competencies by Man et al. (2002), has been adapted for this study. Its adaption becomes necessary due its comprehensiveness, as it incorporates several competency models that are listed in the literature of entrepreneurship (Baum et al., 2001; Chandler & Hanks, 1994; Chandler & Jansen, 1992). These six competency sub-constructs or dimensions are: opportunity competencies, organizing competencies, conceptual competencies, commitment competencies, relationship competencies, and strategic competencies.

Table 3.2

A synthesis of behaviours reflecting Competencies Identified in Previous Studies

Competency Areas	Examples of behaviours	Model of entrepreneurial competencies							
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Strategic	Develop vision and strategy, plan ahead, set goals and standard, sell ideas				*			*	*
Commitment	Demonstrate strong motivation to compete, drive to see venture through to fruition, and capacity to make an impact, drive and dedication.		*		*		*		
Conceptual (Innovative and Analytical)	Demonstrate the possession of cognitive ability and decision- making skills, ability to weigh risks, think analytically, be innovative, be creative, show reasoning, and capacity to reduce risks.	*	*		*	*			*
Opportunity	Ability to recognize opportunity, ability to capture opportunity, ability to recognize customers need.	*	*		*		*		*
Relationship	Possess and use good interpersonal and communication skills, ability to influence others and gain support.		*		*	*	*	*	*
Organizing (Human and Operational)	Ability to direct, lead, delegate, motivate, plan and scheduled, develop program, prepare budget.	*	*		*	*	*	*	*

Competency areas identified by Man and Lau (2000, 2005); Ahmad et al., (2010) , Man, et al. (2008)

Literature source: (1) Baum (1995); (2) Chandler and Jansen (1992); (3) Georgellis et al. (2000); (4) McClelland (1987); (5) McGee and Peterson (2000); (6) Snell and Lau (1994); (7) Thompson, et al. (1997); (8) Winterton (2002).

3.3.2 Dimensions of Entrepreneurial Competencies

Several entrepreneurial behaviors have been identified in the extant literature as being contributory to business success. Consequently, Man and Lau (2000) have grouped some of these identified behaviors, into clusters, as depicting different competencies. Drawing from existing literature, six distinctive entrepreneurial competencies' clusters have been identified as most critical for a successful entrepreneurship (Man & Lau, 2005; Man, et al., 2008; Chandler & Jansen, 1992) at the micro, small and medium levels of business operation. These six distinctive entrepreneurial competencies are discussed below.

3.3.2.1 Opportunity Competencies

The first among these clusters is the opportunity competencies. These competencies have been recognized as the core of entrepreneurship (Casson, Dark, & Gulamhussen, 2009; Casson & Godley, 2007). Hence, opportunity competencies pertain to the entrepreneur's ability to search, develop, and to evaluate high-quality opportunities, which exist in the market place (Man, 2001). Opportunity competencies have been tagged as the most distinguishing dimension of all entrepreneur's competencies (Man, 2001). Shane and Venkataraman (2000) also submit that opportunity recognition and utilization are both important notion of entrepreneurship.

McClelland (1987), in a study of 24 entrepreneurs in developing countries, discovered that most successful entrepreneurs are those who are able to see and act on opportunities. Opportunity competencies refer to the entrepreneur's ability of recognizing market opportunities through several means (Man, Lau & Chan, 2002). Chandler and Jansen (1992) contend that business founders do scan their environments with a view to identify

existing opportunities, and they finally take advantage of these opportunities. Chandler and Jansen (1992) further submit that an important function of the entrepreneurs is their ability to recognize and envision taking advantage of opportunities. An empirical study on some salient local competencies of expanding small businesses in Hong-Kong conducted by Snell and Lau (1994) revealed that the readiness to seize relevant opportunities is an important competency required by growing business.

In a similar view, Kirzner (1979) asserts that entrepreneur's alertness to opportunity is central to entrepreneurial process. In a similar submission by De Koning (2003), opportunity competencies were conceived as the entrepreneur's ability to seek, explore, develop, as well as assess the opportunities that exist in the market place. Opportunity competencies have also been conceived as a distinguishing entrepreneurial characteristic, which is hinged on the entrepreneur's ability to see opportunities where others have failed to (Allison, Chell & Hayes, 2000). In essence, opportunity competencies entail the activities of seeking, spotting, and developing new business opportunities in order to secure competitive advantage and attain success in the business.

3.3.2.2 Strategic Competencies

The second prime function of the entrepreneurs, as the owner/manager of a firm is their ability to establish the direction towards realizing the purpose and goals for which the business was established. This is contained in the strategy adopted by the entrepreneur. According to Man et al. (2002), strategic competencies relate to the process of establishing, evaluating, and implementing strategies for the firm. Thompson & Richardson (1996) attempt a comparison between strategic competencies to strategic

management and assert that strategic competencies involve the establishment of a mission, defining of objectives, making both internal and external analysis of the environment, and the evolving of appropriate strategies to achieve these objectives.

However, strategic competencies require an entrepreneur to have a clear vision and goal of what the organization is seeking to achieve (Thompson, Stuart, & Lindsay, 1997; Snell & Lau, 1994; Durkan et al., 1993), and on the basis of this, formulates and implements strategies toward achieving these goals and visions (Man & Lau, 2000). Strategy entails the application of planning techniques in the handling of various functional areas of the organization (Man & Lau, 2000).

Man (2001) operationalized strategic competencies through a measure of some of the entrepreneur's behaviors. Some of these behaviours are the entrepreneur's awareness of the projected direction and how its changes may affect the firm, prioritizing of work in alignment with the business goals, and the reorganization of the firm towards achieving its objectives. Other behaviours are linking the present firm's actions with the strategic goals, monitoring of the firm's progress towards achieving strategic goals, assessing firms results against the strategic goals, and lastly, determining the firm's strategic actions through an evaluation of its costs and benefits. Thompson and Richardson (1996) opined that a change in the management component of strategic management could be linked with competitive success of firms that operate in a highly competitive environment.

3.3.2.3 Conceptual Competencies

The third entrepreneurial competencies of an owner-manager are the conceptual competencies. The conceptual competency of an individual entrepreneur is, according to Chandler & Jansen (1992), the outward reflection of the entrepreneur's mental capabilities, which is been employed in the coordination of all the business interests and activities. Man et al. (2002), perceived conceptual competency as the entrepreneur's conceptual abilities which are reflected in their behaviors in relation to their abilities on issues such as, risk taking, innovativeness, decision making, as well as in their absorption and understanding of complex information.

Michalko (2000) contends that conceptual competencies have to do with the entrepreneur's ability to think deeply to stimulate new thinking pattern, and to be able to evolve new ideas and concepts, which sometimes, may result in deviating from the normal way of doing things. However, conceptual competency avails entrepreneurs the opportunity of doing things differently, by taking on new perception, creating value in new ways, focusing on discovering new concepts, and subsequently acting on them (Thompson et al., 1997). It also helps in the reversion of the entrepreneur's conventional thinking patterns to problems and situations, by developing in them alternative approach to the ways of viewing things (Thompson et al., 1997).

According to Bird (1995), conceptual ability makes an entrepreneur thinks analytically and to successfully cope with uncertainties. This analytical thinking ability is believed to assist the entrepreneur in solving complex business problems (Durkan et al., 1993). Consequently, conceptual competencies have been noted to have a strong connection

with entrepreneurial traits, which are, though not easily observable, but reflected in the entrepreneur's abilities to learn, to analyze issues, to make decisions, and to be able to solve problems (Man, Lau, & Chan, 2002).

Additionally, conceptual competencies found support in the concept of 'conceptual flexibility' (Cockerill, Hunt, & Schroder, 1995), which is a manifestation of the entrepreneur's ability to identify possible alternative way to decision-making and their ability to appraise its pros and cons. High conceptual competency has been found to equip the entrepreneurs. This is the case, specifically, for those operating at the micro, small and medium levels of businesses and who are always, confronted with numerous situations that requires quick decision-making, with the ability to analyze and solve problems, as well as taking informed decisions under such a condition of uncertainty (Gupta, 2010).

3.3.2.4 Organizing Competencies

Consequently, the entrepreneur's organizing competencies have been noted to share some similarities with the managerial competencies (Ahmad et al., 2011b). However, earlier models on entrepreneurial competencies have stressed the importance of organizing competency and the need for its mastery by every entrepreneur (Man, 2001). This advocacy stems out of the fact that, organizing competency is seen as a reflective of wider range of managerial functions, which the entrepreneur, as an owner/manager, must assume in the organization (Chandler & Jansen, 1992). These competencies are manifested in the entrepreneur's ability to develop plans, organize and allocate resources,

lead and motivate the employees, coordinate activities, delegate tasks, and ensure a smooth running of the organization (Chandler & Hanks, 1994).

Baum (1995) also found a positive and significant relationship between organizing competencies and business performance. In addition, Man et al. (2002) referred to entrepreneur's competencies relating to the organization of different internal and external, financial, human, physical, and technological resources, as organizing competencies.

3.3.2.5 Commitment Competencies

The dimension of the entrepreneurial competencies of commitment refers to the entrepreneurs' doggedness as shown by their continuous striving and persistence in achieving long-term business goals through their strong devotion (Man & Lau, 2000). It encompasses behaviour that energizes entrepreneurs to forge ahead in their business. While strategic competencies relate to acts of setting and taking of actions, commitment competencies relate to ways of sustaining these actions (Man & Lau, 2000). Hence, commitment competency drives the entrepreneurs to forge ahead in their business. Hence, for the entrepreneurs to sustain and improve their performances on a long-term basis, they must be strong in their commitment competencies.

Consistent with Man and Lau, (2000), Neace (1999) reports that the most important and controllable entrepreneur's behavioral traits which are needed to succeed in business are their determination and ambition. Thus, entrepreneurs with high commitment competencies are those who never give up against all odds to failure but will always be

determined to ensure that the venture works by making personal sacrifices whenever the need arises (Chandler & Jansen, 1992).

Nevertheless, commitment competencies require the entrepreneur's ability to sustain their dedication to the business no matter what the situations are. Such dedication to business often manifests in the entrepreneur's strong will to work hard, aims for long-term goals instead of short-term gains, and in their ability to start up the business again after it fails (Man & Lau, 2000).

Commitment competencies encompasses the basic human characteristics that are required for successful entrepreneurship. Some of these includes diligence, determination, commitment, initiative, dedication, and proactive orientation (McClelland, 1987). Also, Man et al. (2002) have identify the following clusters of entrepreneurs' behaviours, which reflects commitment competencies. These sets of behaviours includes the entrepreneurs' ability to remain focus in the face of failure, by not allowing the business fail, or a commitment to personal goals through personal development, which can in turn, impact the business positively. Others are being fully committed to hard work, engaging in good business practices, committed to the customers, employees, suppliers, and other stakeholders, committed to the strategies adopted by the business, and committed to the long-term goals of the business.

On the whole, commitment competencies comprise the key elements, which force the entrepreneur to forge ahead in their business (Al Mamun, et. al., 2016). However, previous researches on entrepreneurial competencies of female entrepreneurs in

developing countries have found commitment competency a very critical element in the business success of women entrepreneurs (Permarupan, et al., 2016).

3.3.2.6 Relationship Competencies

The last of these entrepreneurial competencies as advanced by Man and Lau (2000) is the relationship competency. This competency demonstrates on how the entrepreneurs interact with different categories of people, which include the customers, employees, suppliers, competitors, stakeholders, and even government authorities, in the course of the business operation (Man et al., 2002). This interaction, which is like cooperation between the entrepreneurs and the business environment, takes the form of interpersonal relations, interpersonal skills, persuasive ability, and communication (Man et al., 2002). A good relationship competency therefore, ensures progress in the business, as diverse interactions with different people makes it possible for the entrepreneur to have access to most valuable information and other resources that will be useful to the business (Jenssen & Greve, 2002).

This entrepreneur's relationship competency is consistent with the resource dependency theory (Barringer & Harrison, 2000), which lays emphasis on the use of social relations of the entrepreneurs to get the necessary resources required to launch their businesses (Hansen, 2001; Jenssen, 2001). This however, forms part of the reason why Bird (1995) describes relationship competencies as a form of entrepreneurial bonding strategy between the entrepreneurs and their suppliers, customers or other stakeholders. However, this entrepreneurial bonding, especially with the customers and suppliers, are

seen as the most crucial factors in the survival of small businesses or ventures (McGowan et al., 2001).

Furthermore, Man and Lau (2000) have found that interpersonal skills, especially that of relationship building and networking, to be the important competencies areas among small and micro entrepreneurs in Hong Kong SMEs. In addition to this, relationship competencies have also, to some extent, been found to assist entrepreneurs in overcoming some constraints faced by their business, specifically, in areas of financing or expertise seeking, by helping them to establish networks, or to negotiate favorable deals (Jenssen & Greve, 2002).

Additionally, report has it that the density networks and the proportions of the entrepreneurs' strong ties in personal networks are positively related to a successful launching of new ventures (Davidsson & Honig, 2003), as well as the success of the business (Vissa & Chacar, 2005). Hence, the relationship competencies have been found to be critical, especially for entrepreneurs operating at SMEs level, due to its advantage to the business in the long run. This is because satisfied customers have always been seen to eventually becomes repeated and loyal customers, and have even, in some instances, go on to introduce other new customers to the business (Gupta, 2010).

In general, all these competencies areas have been found to be the antecedent factors of business success and they are observable among entrepreneurs, both in developed and developing countries (Tipu & Arain, 2011). On this note, entrepreneurial competencies have become recognized as one of the critical factor to successful entrepreneurship (Mitchelmore & Rowley, 2010).

3.3.3 Entrepreneurial Competencies and Entrepreneurs' Business Success

The desire to provide an alternative predictor to business success by looking beyond the individual personality and demographic characteristics gives rise to concept of competencies in the field of entrepreneurship. To this end, several researches have been conducted to establish relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and business success or performance, and the findings from such empirical studies on this relationship have been documented in the extant literature.

Barazandeh et al. (2015) in their study, attempt an analysis of the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies, social norms and business performance. Using the GEM data of 2010, 125 cases were drawn from 25 member-countries, and confirmatory factor analysis, based on factor loading, reveals that the entrepreneur's social image better measured entrepreneurial social norms, than their national attitude towards entrepreneurship; in the same way as their entrepreneurial skills better measured their entrepreneurial competencies. From the analysis of data obtained, findings revealed that positive relationship exist between entrepreneurial competencies and business success, while subsequent results showed that, entrepreneurial social norms exert positive influence on the entrepreneur's competencies.

Following an effort to determine how interaction between business internal factor of entrepreneurial competencies, and the external factor of business environment, could influence the success of a business, Ahmad et al. (2010) attempt an evaluation of the moderating effect of business environment on the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and business success of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) in Malaysia.

The study draws on a sample of 212 business owner-founders in Malaysia and structural equation modelling tool of analysis was used to testing the proposed model. Findings from this study reveals that, entrepreneurial competencies strongly predict the success of SMEs businesses in Malaysia. The study further reveals that entrepreneurial competencies strongly predict business success greatly, in a hostile or dynamic environment more than it does in a benign and stable environment. However, this finding was also found to be consistent with the Gibb's (2005) contention, which holds that competitive advantage in business can only be achieved and sustained, through the entrepreneur's ability, irrespective of the constraints posed by the size of the firm.

In a similarly study which was aimed at identifying founder competence that would enhance venture performance, Chandler and Jansen (1992) conducted a self-assessment study of 431 founder entrepreneurs across five different businesses (manufacturing, plumbing, restaurant, rest home, security) in the state of Utah. The study uses questionnaire as the instrument of study, with 21 items of six competency's dimensions (i.e., human, conceptual, ability to recognize opportunity, the drive to see venture through to fruition, technical-functional competence, political), obtained from entrepreneurial, managerial, and technical-functional competencies.

The items were rated on seven-point Likert scale of "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree", and the results of the analysis indicates that successful founders are competent generalists as their firms show high propensity level of growth and earnings, both of which are measures of entrepreneur's business success. This study is consistent with the Chandler and Hanks (1994), where entrepreneurial competencies were also found to be positively related to firm's growth, and that of Priyanto and Sandjojo (2005) which

established a positive relation between entrepreneurial competencies of managerial, industry, opportunity and technical skills, with venture growth.

Sanchez (2012) also conducted a study to determine how entrepreneurial competencies influence the performance of small enterprises by drawing on data obtained from Spanish entrepreneurs. The study built on a causal model in which entrepreneurial competencies affect firm performance, organization capability, and competitive scope, directly or indirectly. Findings from the study finally show that entrepreneurial competencies influenced competitive scope and organization capabilities. These organizational capabilities were in turn, seen to have positive effect on the firm's performance, while partially mediating the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and business success. This competitive scope was however, shown to have no significant effect on business growth, as it serves as a strong predictor to performance dimensions of efficiency and relative performance with organizations capability seen as a strong predictor of competitive scope.

Consistent with the above study, Gerli, Gubitta and Tognazzo (2011) conducted an empirical study with sample of 97 SMEs entrepreneurs in North-East Italy with the aim of ascertaining the role of individual competencies and its effect on business performance. The study analyzed every individual portfolio competency alongside a set of firm's performance indicators with a view to determining the presence of any relationship between the entrepreneur's characteristics and the performance of the firm they own and managed. The findings of their study established that entrepreneur competency portfolio is directly related to business success and that specific competencies such a planning, leadership, directing others, persuasiveness, efficiency-

orientation, teamwork, self-confidence, organization awareness, and benchmarking were seen to result in higher entrepreneurial performance.

Similarly, in an exploratory study examine the entrepreneurial competencies of some female entrepreneurs in Ukraine, Marina and Solesvik (2012) adopted a multiple-case methodology approach by using primary data that was generated from semi-structured personal interviews to examine the competencies of some female business owners/managers. Findings from their analysis shows that female entrepreneurs were successful after they had acquired general and specific competencies of the Ukrainian context. Also, successful entrepreneurs were associated with several competencies such as opportunity, commitment, conceptual relationship, organizing. However, strategic competencies are underdeveloped among the respondents, while the successful entrepreneurs were found to seek relationship competencies with the politicians and in other legal issues.

Consistent with the study of Marina and Solesvik (2012), Man, Lau and Chan (2008) attempt an exploration of the influence of external context on entrepreneurial competencies between a homegrown Chinese and abroad-bred Hong-Kong entrepreneurs. A comparative analysis was made between these two groups using semi-structured interview conducted on a sample of 16 entrepreneurs. After a thorough analysis of some critical incidents being faced by the entrepreneurs in the course of developing their businesses, their findings revealed some similarities between the sets of entrepreneurial competencies demonstrated by both groups of entrepreneurs, with strategic, opportunity, relationship, organizing and conceptual competencies being rated as most predominant. However, while strategic, opportunity and conceptual competencies occur in same order

for both groups of entrepreneurs, there appears to be differences in the usage of organizing and relationship competencies as the home-grown entrepreneurs were found to employ more of relationship competencies, while the emphasis of the abroad-bred entrepreneurs were on organizing competencies.

Acknowledging the performance, growth and success of small and medium enterprises as contingent on the entrepreneur's competencies, Mitchelmore and Rowley (2013) examine the competencies of some women entrepreneurs in Wales and England using a questionnaire-based survey. These questionnaires were drawn on a Likert scale from which the respondents were asked to rate their ability against the listed competencies. After conducting a principal component analysis (PCA) to determine the clusters of competencies and to ascertain the competency loads into them, four main clusters of competencies emerged. These are the entrepreneurial, personal and relationship, business and management, and human relations competencies. However, unlike in the previous researches where only two clusters of competencies (i.e., entrepreneurial, and business and management competencies) have been identified, findings showed that personal and relationship competencies, and that of human relationship competencies, which have received less attention, are those that are highly valued by female entrepreneurs.

In a related study conducted to assess the level of personal competencies of some women project managers in the construction industries in Malaysia, Liyana and Jaafar (2013), draw on a sample of 15 women project managers by using questionnaire as the instrument of the study. The result of the study reveals that, apart from their experience, which serves as the first criterion for their selection, they were also found to exhibit three other personal competencies of alertness and quickness, honesty and integrity, and

decision-making ability. These competencies were found to significantly impact on the success of their organizations.

A study by Suhaimi, (2018) on women micro-entrepreneurs draws on a sample of 384 women respondents to examine the moderating effect of a supportive environment on the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies of opportunity recognition, relationship, and commitment on women microenterprises in the six districts of Kelantan, Malaysia. Findings from this study reveals a positive and statistically significant relationship between these entrepreneurial competencies and microenterprises owned and managed by women in Kelantan, Malaysia.

Consequently, Mamun (2016) also examine the influence of entrepreneurial competencies, amount of credit obtained, and entrepreneurs' education on the entrepreneur's success of microenterprises owned by women under the Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia (AIM) credit scheme. The study makes use of a sample of 407 women micro-entrepreneurs drawn from some selected states in Malaysia. PLS-SEM technique was employed as the tool for analyzing the quantitative data obtained through a cross-sectional research design. The findings of the study reveal a significant and positive relationship between entrepreneurial competencies, level of education and amount of credit received by the women micro-entrepreneurs through AIM on the performance level of the micro-enterprises owned and managed by low-income women micro-entrepreneurs.

Furthermore, Ismail (2012) makes a blend of both entrepreneur and social competencies and examines their significance on building of business network, improvement of

competitive advantage and business performance of SMEs in batik industry. The study draws on a total sample of 197 respondents from batik industry in Indonesia and uses questionnaire as the instrument of the study. Data obtained were analyzed using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) and AMOS 16.0 as the tools for data analysis. Findings from the analysis show that entrepreneur's social competence greatly influenced business network, competitive advantage, as well as business success of SMEs in the industry.

Following the attribution of the failure in current literature to offer explanation on the role of managerial competencies in the success of small and medium size enterprises (SMEs), Laguna, et al. (2012) conducted a research with a view examining how the general and specific managerial competencies influence business success of small and medium size enterprises (SMEs). This study's sample comprises 264 SMEs managers drawn from five European countries (i.e., Belgium, Poland, Portugal, Slovenia and Spain).

With the subjective assessment of economic growth being used as indicators for measuring business success, the data obtained were analyzed using hierarchical multiple regression. The result shows the general and specific managerial competencies to be significant in the prediction of business success. In addition to this finding, specific managerial competencies were also found to mediate the relationship between general competencies and business success. This study further provides an insight into how individual differences (i.e., general and specific managerial competencies), influences entrepreneurial behavior and its outcomes.

Similarly, with the desire to grow and survive in a dynamic and competitive environment being tied to the level of entrepreneur's innovativeness, Georgellis, et al. (2000), examine the effect of entrepreneurial behavior on business success by drawing on a sample of 300 independent small business owners, from Central London. The study identified three entrepreneurial competencies of capacity to plan ahead, innovativeness, and risk taking, as being strong predictors of small business successful innovation and success.

In a related study, which uses a self-reported data on performance to examine the distinctive competencies developed by small retail stores to survive competition in markets that is predominantly dominated by big discount chain stores, McGee and Peterson (2000) draw on a sample of 255 small independent retail pharmacy store owners in the US. However, competency areas such as, quality of customers service, business image, effective pricing strategy, effective handling of customers complaints, effective cost containment, plan execution, activity control and evaluation, strength awareness, and employees training were identified as being crucial to business success.

However, in spite of all these positive and significant relationship reported, there exists some handful of studies, where direct positive relationships have not established between entrepreneurial competencies and business success. Typical among these studies can be found in the works of Rahman et al. (2015). Rahman et al. (2015) conducted a research with a view to examine the influence of large private businesses LPOs on the entrepreneurial success of people at the base of economic pyramid (BoP) through entrepreneurial competencies. A quantitative research method was adopted in this study, using a structured questionnaire to draw on a sample of 134 BoP entrepreneurs in Bangladesh. The data obtained were analyzed using the statistical technique of partial

least square, and findings from the analysis showed that, entrepreneurial competencies of the BoP entrepreneurs have no direct significant relationship with business performance, but only mediate the relationship between technical and training support provided by the LPOs and business success

Consistent with the study of Rahman et al. (2015), Sarwoko, Surachman, and Hadiwidjojo (2013) examine the influence of entrepreneurial competencies and characteristics on business performance with a sample of 147 business owners drawn from Malang regency in the East java of Indonesia. The study uses questionnaire as an instrument and structural equation modeling for analyzing the data. The findings shows no direct relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and business success, as competencies were seen to only mediate the relationship between entrepreneurial characteristics and business performance, with entrepreneurial characteristics being found to significantly influence business success.

Similarly, Ehigie and Umoren (2003) conducted a study on the psychological factors that influence the entrepreneurial success of women small-scale business owners in Nigeria, with a sample of 213 women entrepreneurs, using a questionnaire containing variables such as self-concept, business commitment, managerial competency, perception of work/business stress. Their findings reveal that all the variables jointly accounted for perceived entrepreneurial success with business commitment being found to have a significant positive contribution after self-concept, while managerial competency was found to be negatively correlated with business success.

Additionally, Man, et al. (2008) conducted an investigation with a view to examining the relationship between firm's performance and the entrepreneur's characteristics. Using a theoretical framework developed for the purpose of the study to link together entrepreneur's competencies with business success, questionnaires were administered on a sample of 153 business owners/managers. The investigation revealed a mixed finding, as the entrepreneurial competencies of opportunity, innovative, relationship, human and strategic competencies were all found to have both direct and indirect effects on business long-term performance through its competitive scope and capabilities.

Furthermore, the findings of Man et al. (2008) is the study of Baum et al. (2001) which developed an integrated multilevel model to test venture growth by drawing on a sample of 307 companies. Findings from the study reveal that entrepreneur's specific competencies and motivations together with the firm's competitive strategies directly predict venture growth, while general competencies of opportunity recognition, the entrepreneur's traits, and the environment, were found to have an indirect effect on venture growth.

Taken together, the reports on the findings from the reviewed literature entrepreneurial competencies have empirically demonstrated its influence on business success. However, there are some pockets of findings in which mixed or no direct positive relationship was established between entrepreneurial competencies and business success. On this account, this finding remains inconclusive and it therefore, needs to be further investigated. From this forgoing the study then proposed the below hypothesis.

Hypothesis I

There is a significant relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneurs' business success in northwestern Nigeria

3.4 Entrepreneurial Orientation

3.4.1 Concept of Entrepreneurial Orientation

Conceptually, the term entrepreneurial orientation (EO) is operationalized as a firm-level strategic posture (Covin & Slevin, 1989), covering the entire competitive orientation of the firm. Consistently, it can be referred to as the process by which individuals, in an established venture, pursues entrepreneurial opportunities that lead to innovation, irrespective of the nature and level of the existing current resources of the firm (Covin & Lumpkin, 2011). Rauch et al. (2009) conceives EO as “the strategy-making processes that provide organizations with a basis for entrepreneurial decisions and actions” (p. 762).

According to Covin and Wales (2011), the theoretical foundation of the concept of EO was rooted in the early studies of Mintzberg (1973), Khandwalla (1976), Miller (1983), Covin and Slevin (1989), and Lumpkin and Dess (1996). It starts from the earliest studies of Mintzberg (1973) who advocates for three modes of strategy making processes involving, planning, adaptive and entrepreneurial. While the planning mode entails a systematic gathering of information for the situation analysis, in order to generate alternate strategies, from where appropriate strategy can be drawn, the adaptive mode, is concern with a reactive solution, as opposed to being proactive in the search for

opportunities, while the entrepreneurial mode focused on the active search for opportunities and growth.

However, the contemporary entrepreneurial orientation framework, developed by Miller (1983), holds that ~~an~~ entrepreneurial firm is one that engages in product-market innovation, undertakes somewhat risky ventures and is first to come up with pro-active innovations, beating competitors to the punch” (p.770). On the basis of this postulate, Miller (1983) uses the three dimensions of proactiveness, risk-taking and innovation to characterize entrepreneurial orientation. Following the postulation by Miller (1983), subsequent studies on EO concept continued to adopt these three dimensions to characterized EO (Tarabishy et al., 2005; Kreiser, marino & Weaver, 2002; Lee & Peterson 2001; Lumpkin & Dess 1996; Covin & Slevin 1989).

Consistent with the earlier works of Miller (1983), Covin and Slevin (1989) contend that ~~the~~ entrepreneurial orientation of a firm is demonstrated by the extent to which the top managers are inclined to take business-related risks (the risk-taking dimension), to favor change and innovation in order to obtain a competitive advantage for their firm (the innovation dimension), and to compete aggressively with other firms (the proactiveness dimension)” (p. 218).

Building on the existing works of Miller (1983) and Covin and Slevin (1989) on EO, Lumpkin and Dess (1996), extends the dimensions of EO to include autonomy and competitive aggressiveness. Following this extension, Lumpkin and Dess (1996), succinctly define EO as ~~the~~ processes, practices, and decision-making activities that lead to new entry”. However, the crux of this definition is on its consideration for

organization's strategic decisions, which help in stimulating the emergence of new entry. The inclusion of these two additional dimensions into the mainstream of entrepreneurial orientation by Lumpkin and Dess (1996) brings to five the total dimensions of entrepreneurial orientations. These are proactiveness, innovativeness, risk taking, autonomy, and competitive aggressiveness innovativeness (Van Geenhuizen, Middel, & Lassen, 2008).

Entrepreneurial Orientation covers both the firms and individual levels of analysis (see Ferreira, Jalali, Bento, Marques, & Ferreira, 2017). It involves the willingness of entrepreneurs at both levels of analysis to innovate, search for risks, take self-directed actions and, be more proactive and aggressive than the competitors toward new marketplace opportunities (Lumpkin and Dess 1996; Wiklund and Shepherd 2005).

However, the notion of conceiving entrepreneurial orientation as firm's strategic posture, reflects how implicitly or explicitly firms chooses to compete (Covin, 1991), rather than being an outcome of such a strategic posture. As a firm strategic posture, entrepreneurial orientation has emerged as one of the important concepts in the field of management and entrepreneurial literatures, whose concern is with the decision making processes, practices, behaviours, and styles that lead to the "entry" of a firm's goods or services, into a newly established, or an existing market (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996; Wiklund & Shepherd 2003; Walter, et al., 2006). This has therefore, provides an insight into the entrepreneurial activities of seeking new ventures, by providing useful framework needed for investigating entrepreneurial activities, through a reflection on how firms operate, rather than what it does (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996, 2001).

Sequel to an increase in the conceptualization of entrepreneurial orientation, as a strategic construct, the focus of most studies in the recent years, has being on assessing EOs impact on the firm's success (Lumpkin & Dess, 2001; Frank, Kessler, & Fink, 2010; Casillas, Moreno, & Barbero, 2010; Moreno & Casillas, 2008; Marino, & Li, 2008; Hughes & Morgan, 2007). However, the focus of others, has being on ascertaining its determinants (Cruz & Nordqvist, 2012; Weismeier-Sammer, 2011; Casillas, Moreno, & Barbero, 2011; Kellermanns & Eddleston, 2006; Dickson, 2004; Lee & Peterson, 2001). However, whichever way the focus light is beamed, one thing that remains important is that EO, as a firm's strategic orientation, is grossly being influenced by the EO of the top managers. Hence, Lau, Shaffer, and Au (2007) once argued that the "entrepreneurial firms are a natural extension of entrepreneurs" (p. 126).

Traditionally, the earliest conceptualization of EO was as firm-level strategic behavior of an entrepreneurial firm (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996; Miller, 1983). However, in recent years, researchers have found the usefulness of the EO concept in the understanding of entrepreneurial behavior of entrepreneurs, at the individual level (Robinson & Stubberud, 2014; Bolton and Lane, 2012; Bolton, 2012; Kollmann, Kristofor & Kuckertz 2007; Weerawardena, Mort, Liesch, & Knight, 2007; Nummela, Saarenketo, & Puumalainen, 2004).

While several researches have been conducted on EO at the firm level, only in only few of these studies on entrepreneurship, has EO been used at the individual level of analysis (Joardar & Wu, 2011). Hence, there is the need to examine the phenomenon of EO at the individual level of an entrepreneur. This is decision in tandem with the arguments put

forth by some scholars, that the strategic orientation of the firm is a reflection of the entrepreneurial orientation (EO) of the individual entrepreneurs (Joardar & Wu, 2011).

A recent conceptualisation of entrepreneurial orientation (EO), at the individual level of analysis was however, developed by Kollmann et al. (2007). This conceptualization follows, after the characterization of EO as firm's level strategic posture (Richard, Barnett, Dwyer, & Chadwick, 2004; Covin & Slevin, 1989), which was found similar to the several individual level orientations that are often exhibited by the entrepreneurs. However, the most common dimensions for characterizing entrepreneurial orientation at the firm level – proactiveness, risk taking and innovativeness - are consistent with those used at the individual level of analysis (Joardar & Wu, 2011).

However, the dearth of theoretical and empirical researches about EO at individual level, for which the construct was originally developed (Krauss et al., 2005), was based on the earlier conception of the construct as an important strategic orientation of an entrepreneurial firm (Ferreira et al., 2017; Covin & Slevin, 1991). Hence, these three gestalt constructs, which characterizes EO at the firm level, were adaptation of the Khandwalla's (1976) and Miller and Friesen's (1982) works, whose study on EO were based on a self-reported assessment of individual entrepreneurs (Zahra, Jennings, & Kuratko, 1999).

Moreover, most previous studies on EO at the firm level (see Lumpkin & Dess, 2001; Covin & Slevin, 1989), were conducted at the individual level. A typical example of this is the seminal work of Lumpkin and Dess (1996), in which proactiveness, defined as a "processes aimed at anticipating and acting on future needs by seeking opportunities" (p.

146) was found to be consistent with that Venkataraman's (1989) definition, whose study on entrepreneurship was conducted at the individual level of analysis.

Following this line discussion, a major point of convergence between EO and IEO can be seen in the application of the trinomial constructs of EO, which comprises the three unique facets of risk taking, proactiveness and innovativeness, acting together as one gestalt construct (Goktan, & Gupta, 2015), to shape the entire strategic bearing of the enterprise (Dickson & Weaver, 2008). Thus, while the EO has been characterized as the strategic posture of the organization (Venkataraman, 1989), IEO is conceived as the holistic assessment of the individual's proclivity towards entrepreneurial thoughts, decision making, and actions (Covin & Lumpkin 2011; Basso, Fayolle, & Bouchard 2009; Kollmann et al. 2007; Frese et al. 2002).

Furthermore, Avlonitis and Salavou (2007) described the entrepreneurial orientation of the individual and firm, as the managerial capability to "embark on proactive and aggressive initiatives to alter the competitive scene to their advantage" (p. 567). Therefore, an individual or firm with entrepreneurial orientation (EO) is seen as one who has the capability of discovering and exploiting new market opportunities (Huang, & Wang, 2011). Nevertheless, while the study of EO-performance relationship at the firm level, have been explored in the extant literature of entrepreneurship, there exist a dearth of studies that focus on IEO-performance/success relationship at the individual level. However, given the fact that firms are ultimately being established and managed by individuals, it then goes on to confirm the needs for studies designed to examine the EO-performance/success relationship at the individual level. This is partly, what this study is poised to investigate, with a focus on women micro-entrepreneurs.

In the recent years, there exist some handful of researchers argued in favour of the usefulness of studying individual entrepreneurial orientation (see, Poon, Ainuddin, & Junit, 2006; Lumpkin & Erdogan, 2004). This study is therefore, an answer to one of such calls. Hence, the study of individual entrepreneurial orientation (IEO) is in consonance with the calls by Bolton and Lane (2012) for testing of a developed individual entrepreneurial orientation (IEO) instrument on the entrepreneurs. This is also, consistent with Gibb's (2005) contention, which holds that the firm's competitive advantage in business can only be achieved and sustained through the entrepreneur, who holds the key positions in the organization.

This conceptual exploration of individual entrepreneurial orientation (IEO) of women micro-entrepreneurs therefore, has in no doubt, opens up a new way of assessing IEO-entrepreneur's success in business, by serving as starting point in the conceptual development and practical application of the individual entrepreneur's orientation in the field of management and entrepreneurship studies.

However, measuring the individual entrepreneurial orientation (IEO), using the adaptation of the Covin & Slevin's (1989) nine-item firm-level strategic posture scale, may amounts to a misapplication of measurement, which may in turns, leads to an erroneous outcome. Hence, this study adapts the measurement scale of Individual Entrepreneurial Orientation (IEO), designed by Bolton and Lane (2012), to measure the individual entrepreneurial orientation (IEO) of women micro entrepreneurs.

The choice of this measurement scale over other types of individual level scales for instance, the Entrepreneurial Attitudinal Orientation (EAO) of Robinson, Stimpson,

Huefner, and Hunt (1991), Myers-Briggs's Type Inventory, Entrepreneurial Quotient (EQ), or the Herrmann Brain's Dominance Instrument (HBDI)], derives from its ability to capture the entire dimensions of EO measurement scale, earlier developed by Lumpkin and Dess (1996), which measures EO at the firm level of analysis. Thus, the Bolton and Lane's (2012) individual entrepreneurial orientation (IEO) scale produces three distinct subscales of ten-item, measuring risk taking, innovativeness, and proactiveness, of the entrepreneur at the individual level of analysis.

Table 3.3
Different Dimensions of Entrepreneurial Orientation Identified in Previous Studies

Researchers	EO Dimensions Used
Miller (1983)	Innovation, pro-activeness, and risk-taking
Covin & Slevin (1989)	Innovation, pro-activeness, and risk-taking
Lumpkin & Dess (1996)	Innovation, pro-activeness, and risk-taking, autonomy and competitive aggressiveness
Kreiser, et al. (2002)	Innovation, pro-activeness, and risk-taking
Krauss, et al. (2005)	Innovation, pro-activeness, and risk-taking, autonomy, competitive aggressiveness, learning and achievement.

Source: Own compilation

3.4.2 Dimensions of Entrepreneurial Orientation

Entrepreneurial orientation (EO) has become one of the widely used construct of strategic orientation (Venkatraman, 1989). EO is defined as “the strategy-making processes that provide organizations with a basis for entrepreneurial decisions and actions” (Rauch et al., 2009, p. 762). It is a strategic construct that is often described by set of behaviors, comprising risk taking, innovativeness, proactiveness (Covin & Slevin, 1989), autonomy, competitive aggressiveness (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996), learning, achievement (Krauss et al., 2005).

Although, studies in EO has claimed that only three out of these sets of behaviors (i.e., innovativeness, proactiveness and risk taking), have been widely studied in literature (Rauch et al., 2009; Lyon et al., 2000). However, researchers are of the opinion that these set of behaviors can be considered, either collectively (Lumpkin, Cogliser, & Schneider, 2009; Runyan et al., 2008) or separately (Wang, 2008; Lumpkin & Dess., 1996), depending on the context under which the study is being undertaken.

Nevertheless, a meta-analytical study of the EO construct has reveals that, 37 out of 51 cases, studied the EO construct as uni-dimensional (Rauch et al., 2009). Hence, this present study conceptualized EO as a higher order construct, comprising the sub-constructs of innovativeness, risk taking and proactiveness, and measured at the individual level of analysis. This measurement is consistent with the Miller's (1983), Covin and Slevin's (1989), and Bolton and Lane's (2012) conceptualization of entrepreneurial orientation.

Additionally, some scholars (Covin & Slevin, 1989) were of the view that EO dimensions must positively covary for their effects to become manifest, while others (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996) suggests that EO dimensions need not to be positively covary, for its presence to be asserted. However, George (2011) argue that, the issue of covariance among the dimensions of EO construct is consequent upon the researcher's definition of the relationships between the EO and its sub-dimensions.

Drawing an inference from the above discussions therefore, this study conceptualized EO at the individual level by linking individual entrepreneur's orientation (IEO) to the entrepreneurial activities of women entrepreneurs (Joardar & Wu, 2011). Similar to the

firm's level EO dimensions, which comprises the dimensions of innovation, proactive and risk taking (Covin & Slevin, 1989), an individual entrepreneur's have consistently, being associated with various orientations, which are similar to that of the firm (Joardar, & Wu, 2011). Hence, this individual entrepreneurial orientation (IEO) is conceived as comprising three dimensions of proactiveness, risk taking and innovation (Bolton & Lane, 2012; Bolton, 2012). However, an elaboration of this sub-constructs were made in the subsequent discussions.

3.4.2.1 Risk taking

The risk-taking propensity of entrepreneurial orientation refers to the entrepreneurs' ability to take on bold decision that affects the operation of the business. Some of the entrepreneurial decisions involving risks may include launching of new products, entering into a new market, hiring of additional staff, or investing enormous resources into risky venture (Rauch et al., 2009).

According to Lumpkin and Dess (1996), risk taking refers to the entrepreneur's disposition of committing significant amount of the organizations resources to opportunities, which has a reasonable chance of costly failure. While some researchers have viewed risk-taking dimension as an attribute of managers, it only serves as a reflective of their ability to confront environmental challenges by grabbing new opportunities, which the market presents (Hughes & Morgan, 2007). This is because, the concept of risk-taking itself, basically, emanates from the opportunity seeking attitudes of the entrepreneurs.

Brockhaus (1980) argue that entrepreneurs take calculated risk, which is often time, considered higher risk by other businesspersons who are not entrepreneurs. Although, entrepreneurs differ in their views on risk taking compared to non-entrepreneurs (Chen & Hsu, 2013), they are very optimistic of certain business activities, and are therefore, confidence of taking the benefits of what the opportunities present compares to the non-entrepreneurs (Li et al., 2009; Alegre & Chiva, 2013).

Furthermore, the risk taking dimension of entrepreneurial orientation have been found to be closely related to proactiveness and innovation (Chen & Hsu, 2013), and this has in turn, bolstered the entrepreneur's moves at grabbing market opportunities, by way of introducing new products or services into the market and or, by way of exploring other new markets (Tang et al., 2008). This moves often lead to the development of creative and innovative ideas (Wagener, Gorgievski, & Rijdsdijk, 2010) which will, in the end, brings about higher level profits to the business (Wiklund & Shepherd, 2005a).

Consistently, Awang, Ahmad, Asghar, and Subari (2010), argue that the entrepreneur's ability to be competitively relevant in market place have been found to be directly related to their intensity to take calculated risks. However, large scale business operations involving a considerable level of risk and continuous investment of resources, requires instituting a watchful risk management system, otherwise, the attendant cost consequence of the investments on the business may be disastrous, or may even result in the eventual failure of the business (Chen & Hsu, 2013). This consideration has therefore, made Naldi, Nordqvist, Sjöberg, and Wiklund (2007) to conclude that the risk-taking dimension of entrepreneurial orientation, is one of the vital attributes of successful entrepreneurs.

3.4.2.2 Proactiveness

The second sub-dimension of EO is the proactiveness. This dimension of EO refers to the ability of an entrepreneur to take initiative, specifically at an appropriate moment in their business life (Kwak, Jaju, Puzakova, & Rocereto 2013). Proactiveness is a forward-looking perception of the entrepreneur's inclination, which stresses on the tendency of the firms to "take initiative by anticipating and pursuing new opportunities and by participating in the emerging markets" (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996, p. 146).

According to Venkatraman (1989), proactiveness refers to the entrepreneur's propensity towards "seeking new opportunities which may or may not be related to the present line of operations, introduction of new products and brands ahead of competition, and strategically eliminating operations which are in the mature or declining stages of life cycle" (p. 949). Covin and Slevin (1989) have thereafter, argue that an entrepreneur with proactive tendency have the attitude and ability of impacting change in the environment.

Proactiveness is better achieved when an entrepreneur constantly monitors the internal and external environment with a view to becoming a pioneer through the introduction of new product lines and the exploitation of other market opportunities (Hughes & Morgan, 2007). However, proactive firms have been shown to receive higher returns as a result of their early response to market signals (Lumpkin & Dess, 2001).

Additionally, the proactiveness dimension of EO centered on ways by which entrepreneurs identify and evaluate new business opportunities as well as the monitoring of the market trends (Kropp, Lindsay, & Shoham 2008). Nevertheless, an entrepreneur's response to market signals often manifest in their introduction of new products or

services to the market. Thus, a proactive entrepreneur sometimes discovers future business opportunities, even when some of these opportunities are quite distinct from their current level of operations (Vora, Vora, & Polley, 2012).

According to Lumpkin and Dess (2001), the proactive dimension accords the entrepreneurs a leadership position in the market, and it also uses same to challenge the environment. Hence, entrepreneurial businesses are proactive in nature, and this act of proactiveness has always keep them ahead of their competitors in the market place (Chen & Hsu, 2013).

Furthermore, a proactive entrepreneur is one who continuously seeks way of improving its mode of operations. This improvement in the mode of operation calls for a continuous acquisition of knowledge which would results in improved operational efficiency and gives the individual, the ability to perceive upcoming opportunities in the market before its competitors (Dess & Lumpkin, 2005). In this case, a proactive entrepreneur is one, who is able to create an advantageous environment to itself (Zahra & Covin, 1995), by occupying a prominent place, and securing recognition of its products brand, before that of its competitors, which eventually, brings in high returns for the business (Dess & Lumpkin, 2005).

Conversely, a high entrepreneurial proactiveness may sometimes, result in the development of products, which are not in line with the firm's image (Richard et al., 2004). The occurrence of this may result in a vigorous search for new markets which, often time, may lead to the neglect of an existing ones. The cost implications of this investment of resources on product development and on market search may be so

enormous for the entrepreneur. This is the reason why, Chen and Hsu (2013) argue that, high proactiveness is at times, not beneficial as it may have negative consequences on the business.

However, some researchers are very apprehensive of the entrepreneur's proactive behavior, as they often question its effectiveness, because their expected returns from being a pioneer in the market has often being in doubt (Hussain, Ismail, & Akhtar 2015). This is even made worse by the constant changes in the technological environment, which often makes it difficult for an entrepreneurial business to sustain long competitive advantage that often goes with the newness of products in the market, owing to the fast innovations going on in the market place (Zellweger, Kellermanns, Eddleston, & Memili, 2012).

Additionally, Morgan, Vorhies, & Mason (2009) are of the view that, proactiveness leads to better performance. This is because, it did not only acquaint the entrepreneurs with knowledge on the needs and wants of the customers, but also gives them a better knowledge of the market environment, more than their competitors. This submission is in consistent with the views of scholars such as Khalili, Nejadhussein, & Fazel (2013) who argue that, entrepreneurs must be proactive in the gathering of information about market opportunities, for them to be able combat their competitors.

Similarly, researchers (Engelen et al., 2014; Kreiser et al., 2013; Franco & Haase, 2013; Wales, Gupta, & Mousa, 2013; Krauss et al., 2005) have stressed on the needs for the entrepreneurs to be high in their degree of proactiveness, as well as in their willingness to partake in high risky business activities, in order to achieve success in their businesses.

3.4.2.3 Innovativeness

Furthermore, the entrepreneurial orientation dimension of innovativeness has also, been well researched. Innovativeness refers to the entrepreneurial ability of the business owners to influence their environment, through setting in motion the process of “creative destruction” which unbalances the existing market structures, by allowing the entrance of new players (Schumpeter, 1934). According to Schumpeter (1934) entrepreneurs is an innovator, and as an innovator, entrepreneur impliedly means someone who have a positive mind-set towards evolving new ideas in relation to products, services, and technological process, or administration (West & Farr, 1990). West and Farr (1990) further elaborate by asserting that, new ideas is not just limited to absolute novelties, but includes all that is seen as new to relevant groups, markets or environment. Thus, to be innovative means that, an entrepreneur must have the inclination of being creative and experimenting by introducing new products or services through research and developing a new process.

The entrepreneur's orientation innovativeness, reflect the tendency of evolving new ideas, novelty and creativity, which are quite distinct from the already established practices (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996). According to Mitton (1989), innovation is very crucial to entrepreneurship, and it is an essential characteristic of an entrepreneur. Madsen (2007) asserts that, proactiveness and innovation keeps entrepreneurs ahead of their competitors, while Fairouz et al. (2010) are of the opinion that innovation into new products, process or services gives the entrepreneurs sustainable competitive advantage over their competitors.

The entrepreneur's dimension of innovativeness of entrepreneurial orientation serves as a reflection of their tendency to be fully involved and have support for novelty in creating and introducing new products, process or services (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996). Thus, by increasing their commitment to innovativeness, either in products or processes, entrepreneurs are able to reinvigorate their operational tactics in marketplace, and thus increase their profitability level (Zahra & Garvis, 2000; Lumpkin & Dess, 1996; Miller, 1983).

Conclusively, Brettel and Rottenberger (2013) and Chen, Li, & Evans (2012) have therefore, stressed on the need to boost individual entrepreneurial orientation at different levels of human resources. This, they argue will make entrepreneurs achieve their set target, by encouraging them to move faster in taking advantage of available opportunities, exploiting new market opportunities, and achieving better performance in the market.

3.4.3 Entrepreneurial Orientation and Entrepreneurs' Business Success

A number of researches have been conducted with a view to establish relationships between entrepreneurial orientation (EO) and business success of micro, small and medium enterprises. In several of these studies, some reports the existence of a significant positive relationship between the two constructs, while some established a negative relationship with some even, reporting mixed findings between either of the entrepreneurial orientation dimension and business success. However, here are some of the several reports on the relationship between these two constructs, as found in extant literature.

Shehu and Mahmood (2014) undertakes a study with a view to examine the relationship between business environment, entrepreneurial orientation and business success. The study administered 640 survey questionnaires on individual entrepreneurs in Kano, Nigeria. PLS software was employed in analyzing the data collected from the survey, and findings from this study reveals a positive relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and firm performance, but no relationship was established between business environment and the firm performance.

Similarly, a study was conducted by Fairoz et al. (2010) with a view to determine the extent of the entrepreneurial orientation possessed by 25 small and medium enterprise (SMEs) in the Hambantota District of Sri Lanka (HDSL) and its effects of this on business success. The study adopted an interview method of data collection, which was later subjected to both qualitative and quantitative data analysis techniques. Findings from this study indicates that, about 52 percent of the SMEs in the district possessed moderate level of entrepreneurial orientation, and the overall dimensions of entrepreneur orientation were found to positively correlates with business performance.

Additionally, Wang and Yen (2012) examine the relationship between firm's performance and entrepreneurial orientation (EO), where EO has been used both as a multi and uni-dimensional constructs. The study draws on a sample of 267 small and medium-sized business enterprises in Taiwan. Findings from the analysis reveals that each distinct dimension of entrepreneurial orientation (EO) (i.e., proactiveness, risk taking and innovativeness), and the EO construct positively correlates with the performance of the firm. This finding was consistent with that of Salaudeen and Bakar (2017), where the three EO dimensions of innovativeness, risk taking and proactiveness

at the individual level and that of the overall individual entrepreneurial orientation were found to influence the entrepreneur's business performance.

Consistent with the study of Wang and Yen (2012), Larsen and Korneliussen (2012) explored the multi-dimensionality of EO constructs in an online retail environment with a view to determine the extent at which EO dimensions of proactiveness, risk taking and innovativeness, varies and influence the performance of online retail businesses in Norway. The study uses a survey data drawn from a sample of 100 respondents among the Norwegian online retail business operators, gathered through questionnaires and subsequently, employs structural equation modelling as tool of analysis. The findings from this study shows mixed reports, as the entrepreneurial orientation (EO) of proactiveness, was shown to have a positive significant impact on online retail performance, while the dimensions of risk taking and innovativeness, were found to have negative effect on performance.

Also, the result shows that proactive firms are not very high in innovative strategy. The implication of these findings show that high-risk investments are those that gained much in term of performance. Findings of the study are found to be similar to that of Laudon and Traver (2007), where it was reported that, successful e-commerce businesses are those that fall in the categories of fast followers and not those that are first movers.

In addition, Sriprasert (2013) conducted a study to examine the impact of entrepreneurial orientation on the community enterprise in Nakhon Si Thammarat of Thailand. By using face-to-face delivery structured questionnaires as the instrument of the study to elicit responses from the respondents, the data obtained were analyzed using multiple

regression analysis. Results from this analysis show that, proactiveness, risk taking, and innovativeness dimensions of entrepreneurial orientation greatly influence the job satisfaction of the entrepreneurs. The study further shows that risk taking dimension of EO greatly impact on the entrepreneurs' life satisfaction (i.e. success).

Frese et al. (2002) adopt a psychological approach in their prediction of business success in Namibia, by hypothesizing that psychological strategy process characteristics of critical point planning, complete planning, reactive, opportunistic, and that of entrepreneurial dimensions of innovativeness, risk taking, competitive aggressiveness, and autonomy are related to business success. With a total sample of 87 small scale business owner/managers, drawn from the suburb of Windhoek in Namibia, a statistical tool of partial correlation was employed in testing the hypotheses and it was found that, high entrepreneurial orientation positively and significantly correlated with entrepreneurial success. This finding was consistent with the Koop, De Reu, and Frese (2000) study in Uganda, where self-directed entrepreneurs, who take more risk, challenge their competitors and evolves new ideas on services, products and technology, are those found to succeed more in their businesses, than those who have low degrees of entrepreneurial orientation.

Furthermore, Wijetunge and Pushpakumari (2014) conducted a study with a view to investigate the relationship between the level of small and medium enterprises owners/managers entrepreneurial orientation and business performance among manufacturing SMEs firms in Western province of Sri Lanka. Their study draws on a sample of 275 manufacturing SMEs owner/managers, with a data collected through the use of questionnaires. Both descriptive and inferential statistical tools were used for

analyzing the data and findings shows that, the level of entrepreneurial orientation among the manufacturing SMEs owner/managers in the Western province is very high. Additionally, the findings from this study also reveals that the influence of entrepreneurial orientation dimension of innovativeness is stronger on business success than that of proactiveness and risk taking dimensions.

Hakim (2013) adopted a causality approach between variables to analyze and determine the influence of managerial ability, entrepreneurial orientation and business strategy on business growth. With a sample of 159 respondents drawn from among small and medium business owners in Sulawesi Tenggara, Indonesia, structural equation Modeling (SEM) techniques was used as the tool of analysis. However, finding shows that all the three variables (i.e., managerial ability, entrepreneurial orientation, and business strategy) have positive and significant influence on the growth of small and medium enterprises. In addition, the business strategy variable of cost, focus, and differentiation strategies, were found to be the most important variables that influence business growth, after which is the managerial ability. However, the entrepreneurial orientation dimensions, which contribute the least in enhancing the growth of small and medium enterprises, also exerts a significant impact on improving the business growth.

Soares et al. (2014) conducted a research in the three districts (i.e., Baucau, Dili and Maliana) in Republica Democratica de Timor-Leste (Timor Leste) State with a view to determine the effect entrepreneurial orientation on business performance using government policy as moderating variable. With a saturated sample of respondents drawn from population 276 SMEs owners, out of which, 157 questionnaires were retrieved, a Generalized Structured Component Analysis (GSCA) technique was employed in

analyzing the data obtained. However, the findings revealed that higher entrepreneurial orientation influences business performance. This shows that better entrepreneur orientation improves the performance of small and medium enterprises, while government policy, neither have a direct nor moderating effect on business performance.

Fatoki and Oni (2014) in their study measured the entrepreneurial orientation of some immigrant business owners in Guateng province of Central Business District, South Africa, with particular attention being focused on those migrants from West African countries of Nigeria, Senegal and Ghana. Data were collected through questionnaire using the purposive and snowball sampling techniques. Findings from the study shows that, immigrant entrepreneurs are very keen at launching new product lines as well as making changes to their product lines. This result further reveals that immigrant entrepreneurs are very innovative, and proactive, due to their tendency of being ahead of others, and have preference for risk by investing in high risk projects which returns are very high.

Furthermore, Tang et al. (2008) in their study hypothesized the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and business success to be curvilinear in China, as opposed to having a linear relationship. They employed a two-study approach to establish a relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and business performance and employed two sets of samples drawn from 1100 enterprises, located in Shandong, Hebei, Inner Mongolia, and Tianjin province of Northern China, to test their hypotheses. Hierarchical regression analysis was also employed to determine the form and degree of the relationship existing between EO and firm performance. Findings from both samples

shows a curvilinear pattern of relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and venture success.

In a quest to further determine the factors that influenced customer's satisfaction through an examination of the association between entrepreneurial orientation and business success, Chokesikarin (2014), conducted a study among the entrepreneurs of hotel businesses, in the tourism industry of Pranakorn district of Khao San road, Bangkok. The draws on a sample of 61 hostel owner/managers and 352 hostels' customers and employs a survey method by using questionnaire as the instrument for data collection. Findings from analyzed data reveals that a strong positive relationship exist between entrepreneurial orientation and business success, with all the dimensions of entrepreneurial orientation impacting positively, on business success.

Consequently, Li, et al. (2009) examine the relationship among knowledge creation process, entrepreneurial orientation and business performance. Knowledge creation process with dimensions of externalization, socialization, combination, and internalization, was used in the study as a mediator. A total sample of 165 respondents were used for the study and LISREL analysis was used to analyze the data obtained. The result shows a positive relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and business success.

In considering the influence of external environment on business success, Jabeen and Mahmood (2014) examine the influence of entrepreneurial orientation on business performance in Pakistan, using the influence of external environment as a moderator. With a sample of 220 SMEs owners drawn through survey method of sampling, data

collected through survey were analyzed using SPSS to test the hypothesis. Findings from this study reveals that entrepreneurial orientation has a positive and significant effect on venture performance, which signifies that entrepreneurial orientation impact strongly on business success. In addition, the results from hierarchical regression analysis also reveals the significance role of external environment in moderating the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and business success.

Fatoki (2012) investigates the effect of entrepreneurial orientation on entrepreneur's accessibility to debt financing and SMEs performance. The survey research was conducted through the use of a self-administered questionnaire and on respondents drawn from King Williams' town, and East London, in the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa. Multiple statistical tools of descriptive, correlation and regression analysis were used to analyse the data. Findings from this study reveals the existence of a significant positive relationship between entrepreneurial orientation, access to debt financing, and SMEs success. However, the study further reveals that, accessibility to finance partially mediates the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and SMEs success.

Consequently, Booheme, Yiadom and Yeboah (2012) conducted a study in Siwdu, a suburb of cape Coast Metropolis of Ghana with a sample of 118 auto artisans with a view to examine the influence of entrepreneurial orientation on their business performance. The study adopted a stratified sampling method in its selection of the respondents by grouping them into auto mechanics, auto electricians, auto welders, and auto sprayers, and uses a self-administered questionnaire as the research instrument. Finding obtained from the analyzed data using regression analysis shows a significant relationship between the individual and composite entrepreneurial orientation dimensions and business

performance, except for the risk-taking dimension, where a weak relationship was reported. The findings of the study are consistent with that of Wijetunge and Pushpakumari (2014), where the influence of entrepreneurial orientation dimension of innovativeness was found to be stronger on business success than that of proactiveness and risk-taking dimensions.

In a similar study, Ambad and Wahab (2013) conducted a study by examining the effect of three dimensions of entrepreneurial orientation of proactiveness, innovativeness and risk taking on the two performance dimensions of profitability and growth of larger firms in Malaysia, using environmental hostility as a moderator. The study make use of Partial Least Square (PLS) in analyzing the data obtained and found the existence of positive relationship between entrepreneurial dimensions of risk taking and innovativeness with the performance of large companies in Malaysia, while the proactive dimension of entrepreneurial orientation was found to have a positive relationship to large firms' performance only in hostile environment. This result is consistent with that of Wang and Yen (2012), where the three EO dimensions (Covin & Slevin, 1989) were found to positively correlate with firm's performance.

Ali and Ali (2014) also conducted a study with a view to examine the impact of entrepreneurial orientation dimensions of proactiveness, innovativeness and risk taking on the business performance of women entrepreneurs in Somalia. The study adopted a purposive technique by using questionnaire to draw on a sample of 200 respondents from women owned businesses in Somalia. The study employed Pearson correlation in analyzing the data and uses regression analysis in testing the hypothesis. Findings from the analysis indicate that innovation, risk taking were found to be statistically significant

and positively correlated with firm business performance, while the proactive dimension did not have any influence on business performance. This is consistent with the findings of Booheme et al. (2012) which report a weak relationship between the risk taking dimension and venture success, and that of Ambad and Wahab (2013), where proactive dimension was found to have a positive relationship to large firm's performance only in a hostile environment

Furthermore, Arshad et al. (2014) examine the impact of entrepreneurial orientation (EO) using the five EO dimensions of Lumpkin and Dess (1996) and business performance of a technology-based SME businesses in Malaysia. One-hundred and fifty questionnaires were distributed to the top management staff of technology-based SMEs comprising manufacturing and service sectors, using a simple random sampling technique, out of which eighty-eight questionnaires were deemed usable. The study employs a combination of Pearson product moment correlation and regression analysis as tools of analysis. Findings from this analysis shows mixed results, as only four entrepreneurial orientation dimensions of proactiveness, risk taking, innovativeness and competitive aggressiveness were found to influence business performance, while no correlation was found between the dimension of autonomy and business performance. This finding is in line with the study of Wang and Yen (2012), where the three EO dimensions of risk taking, proactiveness, and innovation positively correlates with business performance.

Furthermore, Krauss et al. (2005) developed an individual-based psychological concept of entrepreneurial orientation with a view to examine the relationship of the construct between business owners (i.e., entrepreneurs) and business success. However, with a sample of 248 entrepreneurs drawn from southern African countries, the hierarchical

regression analysis shows the existence of a significant relationship between entrepreneurial dimensions of achievement, personal initiative and risk taking orientation, and business performance. Consequently, the findings of the confirmatory factor analysis that confirmed the uni-dimensionality of EO construct comprising learning, achievement, innovation, autonomy, risk taking, personal initiative and competitive aggressiveness was also supported.

However, in spite of the reported findings of a significant positive relationship established between entrepreneurial orientation and business performance, some handful of researchers have however, reported on the contrary. Typical among these studies can be found in the seminal works of Andersen (2010). Andersen (2010) attempts a critical analysis of the researcher's assertion of the existence of a significant positive relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and business success, by conducting an empirical study on a sample of 172 respondents from Swedish SMEs manufacturing sector. The outcome of this study debunks the earlier notion of scholars regarding the existence of a positive relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and firm's performance. Andersen argued that previous studies on EO-performance relationship have neglected some critical issues, which mainly relates to the adoption of a perceptual performance data, survival biases, as well as common method biases in their study.

Andersen (2010) further posits that, the EO - performance relationship is more complex than it has been thought of, and therefore argued that caution should be applied in the generalizing the core references result. The study further stresses on the needs for scholars to be mindful in their assertion of the existence of a general correlation between

entrepreneurial orientation and performance. This finding thus, signifies an existence of a negative relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and business performance.

Consistent with the argument of Andersen (2010) is a study conducted by Narver and Slater (2000), where business profitability was used as proxy for business success in a replicative study, poised to determining the influence of market orientation on business profitability. The outcome is then compare to the influence of entrepreneurial orientation on business success. A multiple regression model was employed in this study to analyze a sample of 53 small business units, which were drawn from a variety of business operating units, from both the service and product industries of the western cities. Findings from this study reveals that the regression coefficient of the current study was higher between market orientation and business success than in the original study. However, the study found no relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and business success.

In a similarly research conducted to assess the impact of network capabilities and entrepreneurial orientation on the university spin-offs performance, Walter, et al. (2006) draws on sample of 149 university's spin-offs and employs a moderated hierarchical regression to analyze the obtained data. The findings from the study reveals that, though network capability positively influenced spin-offs performance, which in turns fosters EO competitive advantage, but no direct relationship was established between EO and the firm performance.

Aligning the firm-level entrepreneurial posture of entrepreneurial orientation (EO) to the individual level behaviour of the entrepreneurs, Vantilborgh, Joly and Pepermans (2015), conducted a study by translating the organisation's strategic concept of EO to a

constellation of five individual personality traits which were used to characterized entrepreneurs. The study randomly draws on a sample of 218 respondents from a population of registered Belgian ventures and non-entrepreneurs, who are mostly working employees. Findings from the study reveals that the entrepreneurs score higher on dimensions of innovativeness, risk taking and proactiveness, than the non-entrepreneurs. The study further reveals that entrepreneur's success was achieved only when venture life cycle was introduced into the model as a moderating variable.

In a bid to confirm the influence of entrepreneurially oriented managers on firm's performance, Davis, Greg Bell, Tyge Payne, and Kreiser (2010) examine the moderating role of power on the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and firm performance. The study adopts the Covin and Slevin's (1989) conceptual framework to characterised individual entrepreneurial orientation of the top managers. A combination of regression and moderated regression techniques were used to analyse the data. Findings from this study reveals that individual entrepreneurial orientation (IEO) of the top managers positively relates to the firm's success.

In line with the recommendation of Bolton & Lane (2012), for testing of individual entrepreneurial orientation (IEO) research instrument on entrepreneurs, Bolton (2012) draws on a sample of 340 entrepreneurs from Western Kentucky to validate the IEO instrument. The study employs Pearson's Correlation Coefficient to analyse the relationship between the dimensions individual entrepreneurial orientation (IEO) and business success. Findings from the analysis reveals a significant and positive relationship between only two subscales of risk taking and proactiveness, and business

success. However, a further analysis shows that entrepreneurs that are high IEO describes their success in business as higher.

Consistently, Chien (2014) assesses the influence of the franchisor's and spousal resources, and their entrepreneurial orientation on business performance by drawing on a sample of 99 couple-owned franchisee's outlets in Taiwan. Data obtained through this sample were analysed using the partial least square techniques of data analysis. Findings obtained from this study reveals that the entrepreneurial orientation of the couples has a positively direct relationship to the success of the franchisee's outlets, while the franchisor's resources, and indirectly effect the franchisee's performance through the entrepreneurial orientation of franchisees.

Correlating the entrepreneurial orientation as a strategic posture of an entrepreneurial firm to the personality of the entrepreneurs at the individual level (Miller, 2011, 1983), this study explores the moderating effects of culture on entrepreneurial competencies and entrepreneurial orientation on the business success of women entrepreneurs in northwestern Nigeria.

From all the reviewed literature, findings from empirical evidences has demonstrated the influence of entrepreneurial orientation either at firm (i.e., macro) or individual (i.e., micro) levels on business success. Emerging from these findings, this study then proposed the below hypothesis.

Hypothesis II

There is a significant relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' business success in Northwestern Nigeria.

3.5 Culture

3.5.1 Concept of Culture.

Culture is one of the important aspect of human lives (Hindle & Lansdowne, 2005; Anderson, Giberson, Hindle & Kayseas, 2004; Foley 2003) that often affects individual's attitudes and beliefs (Baskerville, 2003). It is a concept that has been characterized by varying definitions thereby, making it difficult for researchers to reach a consensus as to what its actual meaning is. Nevertheless, the variations in the definition of culture, has in turn, result from differing perception of the concept, making its meanings varied, from being seen as an inclusive, human-made feature of the society (Herskovitz, 1955), to that of a greatly focused conception as a shared system of meaning, which dictates what people pay attention to, how they act, and what they value (Trompenaars & Turner, 1997; Shweder & Levine, 1984).

Although, some scholars admit some difficulties in the definition of the concept (Barley, Meyer, & Gash, 1988), researchers have acknowledged the existence of some commonalities, such as beliefs, values, customs, symbols, artifacts, and rituals, as being common to some of the existing definitions of the concept (Johnston & Klandermans, 1995). However, some complexity in the definition of culture might have emanated from the differing perspectives from which the concept is being investigated, Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952) admit the existence of over 150 definitions of the concept in literature.

However, Baligh (1994) proffered an antidote on the several ways culture can be described or defined, or which can either be seen as a composite whole or be conceived in terms of its component parts. Nevertheless, whichever way culture is being conceived,

one common thing about the concept is hinged on the fact that culture relates to people. Culture is therefore, concerned with a group of people who shares common understanding about things around them.

Ethnographically, the word culture was coined from the Latin word “*cultura*”, meaning cultivation, which past participle is *colere* or *cultus*, meaning *to till* (Skeat, 2010). An earliest conceptualization of concept was offered by a renowned anthropologist, Edward Tylor (1870), who defines culture as “the complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and other capabilities and habit acquired by man as a member of society” (Hill, 2007, p. 90).

This definition of culture conceptualized it as a set of beliefs, norms, or values of a given group of people (Peter & Waterman, 1982; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Kroeber & Kluckhohn, 1952). However, this conception of culture was seen to be influenced by one’s religion, because individual’s basic values and beliefs are determined by religion, which one professed (Basu & Altinay, 2002). However, Hofstede (1991) contends that religion alone cannot shape one’s culture, and then conceptualized culture as a collective phenomenon, which is mostly shaped by the individual’s social environment, and not by its genes (Bwisa & Ndolo, 2011).

Table 3.4 below shows the excerpts of some definitions of culture as found in the existing literature of business management and entrepreneurship.

Table 3.4
Definitions of Culture

Scholars	Definitions of culture
Kroeber & Kluckhohn (1952)	Culture consists of patterns, explicit and implicit, of and for behaviour acquired and transmitted by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievements of human groups, including their embodiment in artifacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e. historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values; culture systems may, on the one hand, be considered as products of action, on the other, as conditional elements of future action. (p. 181).
Kroeber & Parsons (1958)	— . patterns of <i>values</i> , ideas, and other symbolic-meaningful systems as factors in the shaping of <i>human behavior</i> ” (p.583).
Barnouw (1979)	culture as — . the configuration of . . . stereotyped patterns of <i>learned behavior</i> which are handed down from one generation to the next through the means of language and imitation . . .” (p. 5).
Schein (1992)	culture as — a pattern of basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and that, therefore, is taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those Problems. (P.12).
Schwartz, T. (1992)	Culture consists of the derivatives of experience, more or less organized, learned or created by the individuals of a population, including those images or encodements and their interpretations (meanings) transmitted from past generations, from contemporaries, or formed by individuals themselves. (p. 324)
Hofstede (1980)	[Culture] is the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another. (p. 5)
Matsumoto (1996)	... the set of attitudes, values, beliefs, and behaviors shared by a group of people, but different for each individual, communicated from one generation to the next. (p. 16)
Spencer-Oatey (2008)	Culture is a fuzzy set of basic assumptions and values, orientations to life, beliefs, policies, procedures and behavioural conventions that are shared by a group of people, and that influence (but do not determine) each members behaviour and his/her interpretations of the meaning of other peoples’ behaviour. (p. 3)
House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta (2004) in Project GLOBE	culture is shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives and are transmitted across age generations (p. 293).

Source: Own compilation

From all these definitions of culture shown in Table 3.4 above, the Hofstede’s (1980) definition of culture stood out as the most remarkable. This definition follows, after a long review of literature on culture, and as an outcome of a survey of 66 countries, involving a sample of 116,000 respondents. Hofstede (1980) then defines culture as — a collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another” (p. 5). Hofstede further posit that, culture is an

interactive aggregate of shared values, which influences the response of a group to its environment. On this note, Hofstede asserts that culture determines the identity of a group in the same way as personality determines the identity of an individual.

Hofstede (1980) perceived values as an invisible aspect of culture, which manifest through several cultural practices such as, symbols, heroes, and rituals, and then, likened the relationship between values, culture, and practices, to be similar to that of an 'Onion Diagram'. On the basis of this perception, Hofstede finally concludes that cultural practice is the main driver of cultural values. Thus, with the two powerful forces of norms and values, being used to control and direct individual behavior (Mueller & Thomas, 2000), the forces of culture has helped in the shaping of the cognitive schema which ascribed values and meanings to the motivational variables that guides commitments, choices, and the standard of human behavior (Erez & Earley, 1993).

On this perception, the cultural concept of values has been held to be one of the critical elements of culture and cultural uniqueness. This is because, culture is seen to define the basic norms and values that are shared by members, before they are being subsequently, transmitted to the next generation, through processes of social learning of observations, and modelling, and/or, as a consequence of the individuals actions (Bandura, 1986). Hence, culture is seen to manifest in the values and practices of the organizations and societies (Erez & Gati, 2004; House, et al., 2004), in the same way cultural orientation manifests in values and practices of individuals (Chirkov, Ryan, Kim, & Kaplan, 2003; Maznevski et al., 2002).

Hence, cultural orientation is seen to manifest in values and practices of the individuals (Chirkov, Ryan, Kim, & Kaplan, 2003; Maznevski et al., 2002), in the same way as culture manifest in the values and practices of the organizations and societies (Erez & Gati, 2004; House, et al., 2004 (Replace the statement with ds)

In line with this basic distinction between cultural, values and practices, this study then conceptualized culture at the individual level of analysis, as being a reflection of the values and practices, which are being exemplified by the entrepreneurs in their respective businesses (Frese, 2006). Hence, the consideration for cultural practices is found to be of more relevant than the cultural values in the study of entrepreneurial behaviors because, these cultural practices have been seen to correlates with the entrepreneurial actions (Frese, 2006), in the same way as entrepreneurial practices are substantially, being found to correlate with the development of organizational cultures (Schein, 1992).

From the foregoing discussion, the analysis of culture adopted in this study is therefore, based on the works of Hofstede (1980) cultural model, comprising the four cultural dimensions of individualism/collectivism, masculinity/ femininity, power distant and uncertainty avoidance, as adapted to the individual level of cultural analysis by Dorfman and Howell (1988).

3.5.2 Models of Culture

A knowledge of the several models of culture and their sub-dimensions, as they are found in the extant literature of culture studies are necessary for better comprehension of the concept of culture in field of entrepreneurship. This is to avail us of knowledge of the

components of the several models of culture and to provide a justification for the adoption of the Hofstede's models of culture in this study.

3.5.2.1 Kluckhohn and Strodtbecks (1961) Model

The Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) models of culture was developed on six cultural orientations or dimensions. These dimensions are namely, the nature of human, relationship among people, relationship with nature, time orientation, human activities, and space. Each of the cultural dimension in the model were discussed below.

The first among of these dimensions is the human nature. This dimension focused on the nature of human being, which has been categorized as, either being good, bad or a mixture of both. This dimension sees good person as being socially oriented and bad person as being selfish. Thomas (2002) opined that people are inherently good or evil, or a mixture of both. However, to be good supposes that people can be trusted, while an evil individual is by nature, seen as one who is wicked and untrustworthy (Yeganeh, & Su, 2007).

The second cultural dimension of the Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) model, have to do with the relationship with nature. This is expressed by the differences in attitudes, which people have towards nature and their environment. The dimension focused on people's belief of being one with nature, as oppose to the belief of nature being one's supplier. In furtherance of this cultural orientation, Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961), advanced three forms of attitudinal orientations in which relationship with nature can take. These forms of attitudinal orientation include subjugation, harmony and mastery.

Subjugation is a situation where life with nature is influenced, to a large extent, by external forces, making it impossible for people to change their destiny. That of harmony on the other hand, focused on maintaining a balance among the environmental elements and people, with the mastery attitudinal orientation, relating to the struggle by man to conquer and control the environment (Maznevski, et al., 2002). However, this categorization of relationship with nature by Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) have make no distinction between the natural and super-natural forces (i.e., God and divinity). This categorization has by implication, sees one as a substitute for the other (Yeganeh, & Su, 2007).

The time orientation dimension of Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) believes that cultural differences between individuals is a product of time. While the focus of some individuals is on the past, and guided by tradition, that of others is on the present, which is based on their immediate needs (short-term outcome), with the focused of the rest, being on the future by predicting long-term future needs outcomes and circumstances (Maznevski, et al., 2002).

Similarly, the Kluckhohn and Strodtbecks (1961) human activity dimension of cultural model, emphasis on three key elements, which are: being, thinking and doing. The human activity of being, emphasizes on doing things at the right time, while that of thinking stressed on making a careful consideration of a situation before decision is taken, with the doing element being focused on encouraging people to participate in activity that will lead to the accomplishment of tangible tasks (Maznevski, et al., 2002).

Furthermore, the Kluckhohn and Strodtbecks (1961) cultural orientation of relationship with people also comprises three key cultural dimensions of collectivism, individualism and hierarchical structure (Yeganey & Su, 2007). The principle of collectivism manifest only when a group welfare and goal are in lateral extension, while that of individualism becomes dominant at a point, when the weight of the individual goals exceeds that of the group, with the emphasis of hierarchical principle, being on the importance of group goals, its continuity, and group succession.

The last dimension of the Kluckhohn and Strodtbecks' (1961) cultural model is the concept of physical space. This cultural dimension focused on space, be it in public, private, or both. While some culture attached importance to privacy or personal property (i.e., private), the emphasis of others is on having common property (i.e., public), and prevent close doors, thereby allowing people to move about freely.

Conclusively, this Kluckhohn and Strodtbecks model of culture can be applied to organizational research, due to the richness in its framework and its comprehensiveness (Yeganey & Su, 2007). However, Maznevski et al. (2002) assert that the straightforwardness and meaningfulness of this cultural orientation corresponds to the hardcore of culture, which are commonly found in all societies.

Additionally, the Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) cultural model have been found, to shape and inspire other later researchers in the field of culture. This is typically evidenced, especially, in the case of its relationship orientation which shared similarities with the power distance and individualism dimensions of the Hofstede's (1980) model of

culture, and with the achievement-ascription and individualism-communitarianism dimensions of the Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's (1993) cultural models

3.5.2.2 Schwartz's (1994) Model

The Schwartz's (1994) study of culture was based on values, which forms the outcome of a study carried out between 1992 and 1994. According to the Schwartz's (1994) models, cultural values such as, ideas about what is good, right, or positive, are essential in the introduction of norms, which are required in regulating people's behavioral pattern in any situation. On this note, the Schwartz's (1994, 2012) model defines values as the beliefs that refer to desirable goals, transcends specific actions and situations, and serves as standards or criteria, which are ordered by importance. Schwartz (1994, 2012) therefore, charged the societal institutions, like the family, school, economic, political and religion institutions, to serve as sort of a social agents to be responsible for the setting up of these cultural values. The cultural values espoused by the Schwartz's model are discussed below.

The first of the Schwartz's dimensions of cultural values is embeddedness versus autonomy. The concept of embeddedness in culture is considered as a situation in which individual, as an entity is embedded, or is being part of a group, which enjoys his/her loyalty, and is devoid of any action that would threaten its unity or traditional setting. On the other hand, the concept of autonomy describes culture as that in which an individual's freedom is confined or being determined by his/her unique qualities. Based on this distinction, Schwartz proposed two types of autonomy (i.e., intellectual and affective). The intellectual autonomy is seen as that which pertains to the individual thought, ideas,

and the right to be guided by intellectual direction, while the affective autonomy on the other hand, concerns with feelings, emotions, and individuals right, which are guided by his/her positive affective experiences.

The second of the value dimensions of the Schwartz's (1994) cultural model is the egalitarianism (social basis) versus hierarchy (differences in power). The egalitarian value dimension of culture explains the ways in which people uses their innate commitment, through their cooperation, and their feelings of concern for the welfare of others. The emphasis of this dimension is on the ways of overcoming individual selfish interest. In contrast to this is the dimension of hierarchy, where roles are being appropriated as way of guaranteeing a responsible productive effect of behavior, by advocating inequality in the sharing of role, power, and resources. On this value dimension, Schwartz finally contends that to ensure a socially responsible behavior, role must be ascribed through a hierarchical system.

The last of the value-oriented dimension of the Schwartz's (1994) model of culture is harmony versus mastery. This dimension refers to the relationship between nature and social structure. The dimension of harmony stresses on accepting the world the way it is by preserving it, rather than modifying and exploiting it. This is in contrast with the dimension of mastery, which focus is on changing the world by shaping it to suit one's individual will, gain control, or moving ahead with a strong will of self-assertion.

3.5.2.3 Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's (1997) Model

The Trompenaars' (1997) models of culture explains the significance of culture to man by likening it to the importance of water to fish. They assert that, fish only discovers the

importance of water when it is no longer in it. On the basis of this assertion, the Trompenaars and Hamden-Turner's (1997) model then concludes that culture is something, inside which, we live and breathe. Against this backdrop, Trompenaars created a model on the influence of culture on business practices by gathering data from 15,000 respondent managers across 47 countries.

To further fulfill the objective of the research, Trompenaars in 1997, and in conjunction with Hampden-Turner, a fellow researcher, drew on a sample data of 30,000 respondents or managers from both international and multinational organizations from 45 countries across the globe. The outcome of this study finally resulted in their proposition of seven dimensions of culture, two of which were taken from the earlier works (Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961). These seven dimensions of culture as contained in their models are explained below in the following succeeding paragraphs.

The first cultural dimension of Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1997) Model of culture is universalism versus particular values. This dimension refers to the general rules that are universally accepted by people versus the relationships that were derived from a particular culture or groups. This dimension of culture explains the individual's attitude in relation to that of universal principles, and the way it should be applied to a situation, or how a situation in turns determines the suitability of the principle to be applied.

Next is the Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's (1997) cultural dimensions of individualism versus communitarianism orientation. This cultural dimension refers to aspect of individual differences versus that of public or collective concepts of values.

This dimension focused on the individual's core orientation, either to him/herself, or to a common goal or aim.

The neutrality versus affective orientation of the Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's (1997) cultural model refers to the inward expression of feelings versus the outward expression. In their assessment of this dimension, Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1997) often asked questions, like how the employees or the respondents would react to a situation that upset them while at work (i.e., whether inwardly or outwardly). However, individual opinions or responses to this question were found to differ from one country to another.

Furthermore, the Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's (1997) cultural orientation of specificity versus diffuseness focused on the individual's involvement in specific situation with specific set of people. This dimension is a distinctive cultural view of situations, be it private or public, by an individual. Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's (1997) argue that in some cultures, people often categorize their lives into separate parts (specificity) as in being a good colleague in workplace does not automatically translate to one's becoming a good family friend. Whereas, in the case of cultural orientation of diffuseness on the other hand, the different individual's categorization of situations is seen to overlap, as in when the individual status in the workplace influences his/her several other engagements outside the workplace, while his/her status or positions still remains unchanged.

In addition, the internal versus external control orientation dimension of the Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's (1997) cultural model discussed on cultural imposition as against

that of having control over one's environment. This cultural orientation focused on the individual's ability to, either or not, change or control his/her environment. According to Smith, Trompenaars, and Dugan (1995), it is the innate directness beliefs, that is, planning, efforts, and luck, that determines success or outcomes, whereas, in the outer directness, it is one's personal relation and political conditions that determines success, with luck, only acting as a decisive factor. Therefore, as success in business is linked to success in the entrepreneur's strategies, the entrepreneurs then plans and work hard to achieve their aims in innate directness environment, while in an outer directed environment, they can leverage on their personal network, or through other means, to achieve their entrepreneurial aims and objectives.

The next Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's (1997) model of culture is achievement versus ascription dimension. This cultural dimension refers to people's statuses, which can either be categorized on basis of their achievement or by ascription. That is to say, the individual status in the society may be, either gained through their personal achievement, or ascribed to them, on the basis of their ages, gender, or class. In an environment where an individual's success is judged in relation to his/her performance, successful individuals attains their goals faster, in contrast to what obtains in an environment, where success is being ascribed to people. Thus, the entrepreneur's success or position is directly related to their efforts in an achievement-oriented environment, which contrast with the ascription-centered environment, where success is determined by the entrepreneur's background and level of experience.

Lastly is the Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's (1997) model of culture. This is the sequential versus synchronic. The dimension has to do with the perception of time in

relation to the sequence or series in which event happens. The perception of time is seen as either being linearly, orderly, or one at a time; as against the notion of it being simultaneous, or synchronous, where the events happened at same time. On this orientation, Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1997) proposes some themes, which focused on actions that could be taken by the organizations in situations where events happens either, sequentially or synchronically. On the basis of these propositions, one of these themes focused on the organization's ability to manage multiple projects at a time, as opposed to concentrating on just one project, while the focus of the second theme is on the differences that may appears between countries, as it has been evidenced in the individuals perception of the present, past, and the future.

3.5.2.4 Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) (House et al., 2004) Models of Culture

The GLOBE's study of culture covers 62 different cultures, involving 127 investigators drawn from different societies from across the globe. Their study covers a time frame which spans a period of three years (i.e., 1994—1997). The study uses a survey questionnaire as the instrument of data collection administered on a sample of 17,000 respondents drawn from among middle managers in 951 different organizations of three industrial sectors, namely, telecommunications, food processing, and banking.

The GLOBE's choice of variables/dimensions were greatly influenced by the Hofstede's (1980) works on culture, as part of their nine cultural scale takes after the labelling of that of Hofstede's cultural model, in spite of the existing significant disparities between the two studies. House et al. (2004) proposed nine dimensions of societal values and practices in different cultural settings and each of this dimension measures different

societal cultural practices using “as is” and that of the societal values with “should be”. However, it is with these “should be” scores, that the cultural vision and desires for change are being gauged, such that, when there exist disparities between these two cultural practices, the “as is” is applied, with the “should be” being applied whenever there are similarities in values (House et al., 2004).

These nine dimensions of cultural orientation as proposed by GLOBE (2004) are future orientation, performance orientation, humane orientation, assertiveness, power distance, gender egalitarianism, in-group collectivism, institutional collectivism, uncertainty avoidance (House et al., 1999; Javidan et al., 2006). These cultural dimensions are being discussed in the following subsequent paragraphs.

The first of the GLOBE’s cultural dimension of uncertainty avoidance refers to the extent to which individuals or members in a society, group, or organization strives (should strive) to avoid uncertainty by relying on rules, social norms, and bureaucratic practices, as a way of easing the unpredictability of future events (House et al., 1999; Javidan et al., 2006). Thus, the more the individuals’ desire to avoid uncertainty is, the more likely they seek for orderliness, structure, consistency, formal process, or laws, to cover situations of their daily lives (Javidan et al., 2006). Therefore, in countries like Singapore and Switzerland, organizations with high avoidance, set up elaborate procedures and processes, and support formal strategies, whereas, organizations in Russia and Greece, who have low uncertainty avoidance, chooses simple processes with a broad strategy (Javidan et al., 2006). These organizations are opportunistic in nature and, they thus enjoy taking of risks.

Similarly, the power distance dimension of the GLOBE's study expresses the extent at which a society or an organization's members expect (should expect) power to be equally shared (House et al., 1999; Javidan et al., 2006). Several evidences have shown that, societies or organizations with unequal power distribution reflects high power distance. Hence, some politically, economically and socially stratified countries, scores high in cultural practices as the officials in positions of authority in those countries expect and receives obedience, whereas, in countries like Thailand, France and Brazil, with high power distance, there exist a hierarchical decision-making process that is characterized by partial one-way participation and communication (Javidan et al., 2006).

Subsequently, the GLOBE's cultural dimension of institutional collectivism refers to the extent to which societal organizations and societal institutional practices, favors and rewards (should favor and reward) collective distribution of resources and actions (Javidan et al., 2006; House et al., 1999). Thus, organizations in collectivistic countries, such as Singapore and Sweden, places emphasis more on group performance and rewards, whereas, in countries like Brazil and Greece, where individualistic culture held sway, emphasis is placed on the individual achievement and rewards (Javidan et al., 2006).

The in-group cultural orientation dimension of the GLOBE's cultural models, assessed the extent at which individual expresses (should express) loyalty, pride and cohesiveness in their families or organizations (Javidan et al., 2006; House et al., 1999). For instance, in some societies such as, Russia and Egypt, people takes pride in their families, as well as in the organizations that employs them (Javidan et al., 2006).

Additionally, the gender egalitarianism dimensions of the GLOBE's study on culture shows the extent at which organizations, groups or societies minimizes (should minimize) gender role differences, by being tolerant to different ideas and individuals (Javidan et al., 2006; House et al., 1999). According to Javidan et al., (2006), most European countries are generally higher on gender egalitarianism and, as a result of this, they often exhibit tolerance for diversity in ideas and individualism.

Furthermore, the GLOBE's cultural concept of assertiveness, exhibits the extent at which individuals, either in the organizations or societies are (should be) assertive, aggressive and confrontational, in their social relationships with others (Javidan et al., 2006; House et al., 1999). Hence, people in countries like Austria and United States with high assertiveness, by exhibiting can-do attitudes are (should be) assertive, confrontational, and aggressive in their relationships with others. This people relish competition in business, while those with less assertiveness in countries, like Sweden and New Zealand for instance, favors harmony in their interactions, and placed emphasis on loyalty and solidarity (Javidan et al., 2006).

Consequently, the GLOBE's future orientation dimension of culture discusses on the extent at which individuals, either at the organizational or societal level, engage (should engage) in future-oriented behaviors as in planning, delaying of gratification, and investing into the future (Javidan et al., 2006; House et al., 1999). Hence, firms in countries that are higher in future oriented practices, such as, Switzerland and Singapore, have long systematic planning processes and longer time horizons, and hence, they tend to be risk averse and opportunistic in decision making. In contrast to this are organizations from countries like Argentina and Russia, with least future orientation.

These countries are less systematic and opportunistic in their actions (Javidan et al., 2006).

However, the performance orientation dimension of the GLOBE's study shows the extent at which organizations or societies encourage and reward (should encourage and reward) members of a group for their performance improvement and excellence (House et al., 1999; Javidan et al., 2006). Thus, countries like U.S. and Singapore that exhibit high scores in this cultural practices and business, and placed more emphasis on training and development, while family and background counts more for countries like Russia and Greece, which scores low in these cultural practices. This dimension of cultural orientation is similar that of Confucian Dynamism of the Hofstede's cultural model (Hofstede & Bond, 1988).

The last cultural dimension of the GLOBE's model is humane orientation of culture. This focused on the extent at which individuals, either at the organizational or societal level, inspire or compensate (should inspire and compensate) other individuals for their fairness, altruistic, generosity, caring and kindness to others (Javidan et al., 2006; House et al., 1999). This humane orientation shares some semblance with the principle of Kind-Heartedness Thought, found in the Analects of Confucius (Chang, 2005). Malaysia and Egypt were among the countries that ranks higher in the cultural practice of human orientation, while countries like Germany and France ranks lower in these cultural practices (Javidan et al., 2006). Conclusively, these dimensions of the GLOBEs (2004) study on culture finds relevance more at the societal or national level than at the organizational or individual's levels of business operation.

3.5.2.5 The Hofstede's (1980) Models

The Hofstede's (1980) cultural model is undoubtedly, the most widely used model of culture in the field of management and entrepreneurship. This is because its model of cultural dimensions has directly impact on the entrepreneurs. Hofstede conducted a survey of 66 countries, through questionnaire administration processes on a sample of 116,000 respondents. This exercise led to the development of four dimensions of culture, with the fifth dimension, being lately, added.

The Hofstede's works on culture represents one of the largest study that aims at classifying countries on the basis of their value differences. This study by Hofstede, has impacted most researchers in the field of culture. This is because its study on culture has often serves as a frame of reference (Smith, 1992) to other researchers in the field cultural studies. According to Maznevski et al., (2002), researchers on culture who developed their own cultural dimensions by creating other scales, always compare their findings with that of the Hofstede's.

Table 3.5
Hofstede's (1980) Cultural Dimensions

Dimensions	Definitions
Power Distance (PD)	The extent of inequality among the people of a country and which the people consider as normal (i.e., from relative equality to extreme inequality)
Uncertainty Avoidance (UA)	The extent at which individuals in a country favour structured/formal and unstructured/informal situations (i.e., from relative flexibility to extreme rigidity)
Masculinity/Femininity (MF)	The extent at which "masculine" value of performance, assertiveness, and success prevails over the "feminine" values such as the quality of life, maintenance of warm personal relationships, solidarity and service (i.e., from tenderness to toughness)
Individualism/Collectivism (IC)	The extent which people in a country act as individuals instead of being members of any cohesive group (i.e., from collectivist to individualist.)

Source: Adapted from Hofstede's (1980)

3.5.2.6 The Hofstede's Dimensions of Culture

The Hofstede's (1980, 1991, & 2001) models of culture remains as one of the most widely used and comprehensive model of culture in the field of business management and marketing, and entrepreneurship. This is because, the Hofstede's developed scheme of cultural classification have been commonly used in measuring the differences and similarities in culture between different nationalities and workplace in relation to individual beliefs, attitudes, and actions.

Geert Hofstede, a Professor of organizational anthropology, along long with a team of researchers carried a survey of 72 countries across the globe of which, 40 countries were later classified. However, after obtaining addition data from 10 countries in a follow up survey, Hofstede finally comes up with four classifications or dimensions of culture, namely, power distance, individualism/collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity/femininity. These four dimensions, which were further, elaborated in the subsequent paragraphs, forms the basis of analysis used in this study.

3.5.2.6.1 Uncertainty Avoidance

The Hofstede's cultural dimensions of uncertainty avoidance of cultural model examines the extent to which individual feels threatened and as a result of this, tries to avoid an ambiguous situation by setting up of formal rules, and rejecting divergent ideas and behaviors (Ergeneli, Gohar & Temirbekova, 2007). According to Clugston, Howell & Dorfman (2000), people that rank higher in uncertainty avoidance have the characteristics of being risk averse, are resistance to changes, favors formal rules to govern their behavior, and often prefers a stable job.

However, the Middle Eastern cultures are found to have typically, ranked higher in uncertainty avoidance, have a weak future orientation, and are replete with numerous formal rules, some of which guides individual's formal behavior in the society (Abdel-Rahman, 1994). Similarly, individuals from countries like Greece, Uruguay, Belgium, and Guatemala, scores high on this dimension, because they always seek ways to avoid uncertainty, while individuals from countries like Singapore, Denmark, Hong Kong, Jamaica, were found to scores low in uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede, 1980).

3.5.2.6.2 Power Distant

The power distant dimension of the Hofstede's (1980) cultural model is "a measure of the interpersonal power or influence between (a superior) and (a subordinate) as perceived by the (subordinate)" (Hofstede 1991, p.71). This dimension refers to the degree to which inequality in a hierarchy is seen as being important, salient, and real. However, the Hofstede's power distance dimension specifically, shows the extent at which individuals accept the fact that their superior enjoys more power than they do (Hofstede, 2001; Clugston et al., 2000). Hence, people that are higher in power distance are more submissive and are willing to accept differences in their status (Fischer & Smith, 2006; Adsit, London, Crom, & Jones, 1997). On the other hand, people with low power distance on the other hand, place emphasis on autonomy, as well as on their involvement in decision-making (Kirkman, et al., 2006).

Furthermore, under power distance dimension, individuals accept their bosses because of the position he/she occupies, and subordinates never defy the orders of their superiors. Individuals from countries, like Malaysia, Panama, Guatemala, Mexico, and Philippines,

scores high in this dimension as they always strive to complete a given task given to them by their bosses, even when the usefulness or ethical value of such tasks are unknown (Hofstede, 1980), while individuals from countries like Denmark, Israel, Ireland, Austria, and New Zealand, on the other hand, on a low power distant, have the freedom to disagree with directives of their superiors by either questioning or refusing to carry out their instructions (Hofstede, 1980).

3.5.2.6.3 Masculinity/Femininity

Furthermore, the term masculinity/femininity as used in the Hofstede's model of a cultural dimension does not, in any form, relate to the gender/sex of an individual, but it is rather, seen as a characteristic of culture (Hofstede, 1980, 1991, 2001). In a masculinity inclined organization, people hold ambitious career aspirations and as such, they tend to be firm, decisive, aggressive, assertive, and competitive in their opinions. Hence, in this form of organization, people yearn for modest career aspirations, use their intuition, deal with feelings and seek consensus. Cultures that score high in masculinity are Japan, Venezuela, Austria, Italy, and Switzerland.

The people of above countries emphasized and cherished individual assertiveness, including work goals, like earnings and promotions. However, people that rank high on masculinity are capable of making independent decisions, are strongly motivated and they also, experience high job stress. On the other hand, culture that scores low in masculinity or high in femininity, as it can be found in countries like Sweden, Costa Rica, Norway, and the Netherlands, placed emphasis on personal goals, like encouraging others through the creation of a friendly and congenial environment (Hofstede, 1980). People in

these countries however, relish the establishment social contacts, and dislike undue quest for money or other material objects (Hofstede, 1991).

3.5.2.6.4 Individualism/Collectivism

Similarly, the cultural dimension of individualism/collectivism of the Hofstede's model of culture, explains the interactions between an individual and that of a group. The dimension of individualism refers to the degree at which an individual's personal self-interest is ordered above that of a group. It shows the extent at which individuals perceives themselves as being independent in the society. In contrast to this is the dimension collectivism. This dimension stressed on the usefulness of groups above the individual's achievement and, it also, shows the extent of the willingness of individuals to sacrifice their personal interest for the welfare of the group to which they belong (Wong & Tjosvold, 2006; Kabasakal & Dastmalchian, 2001).

However, in countries like Guatemala, Venezuela, Colombia, and Panama, where individualism dimension ranks low (Hofstede, 1980), people feel themselves as belonging to a group, this serves as their source of identity in the unit to which they belong and owed their lifelong loyalty (Hoecklin, 1995). Whilst, it is the often a last wish of every individual, higher in collectivism (low in individualism) culture to become unpopular within the group, it is often the wish of individuals who scored high on individualism (low in collectivism). As an example, in an individualistic culture, such as in United States, United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, where people are self-oriented, as their culture encourages self-initiative and independent decision making.

The last dimension of the Hofstede's dimension of culture which came to be added the model later (Hofstede, 1991), was the long versus short-term orientation, which is otherwise, known as Confucian Dynamism. According to Hofstede (1991), this cultural dimension has to do with the "fostering of virtues oriented towards future rewards, in particular, perseverance and thrift (long-term orientation), versus the fostering of virtue related to the past and the present, in particular, the respect for tradition, preservation of face, and fulfilling social obligations" (short-term orientation)" (p. 261).

This long and short-term orientation or the Confucian dynamism, describes cultures that range from short-term values, with respect to tradition and reciprocity in social relations, to long-term values, with persistence and ordering relationships by status. Therefore, the Hofstede's long-term cultural orientation includes values, such as thriftiness, persistence, having sense of shame, and ordering of relationships, while that of short-term orientation emphasizes on tradition, face saving, stability, reciprocity, and giving of gifts. This Confucian work dynamism refers to a dedicated, motivated, responsible, and educated individual with a sense of commitment and organizational identity and loyalty.

However, with the focus of most studies on culture, in the field of entrepreneurship being directed towards countries and organisations (i.e., not the individual), using the Hofstede's scores of national cultures as the instrument for assessing individual's level of cultural orientation will amount to committing what Hofstede (1991) has described as "ecological fallacies". To avoid this problem therefore, there is the need for an adaption of instrument that measures culture at the individual level of analysis.

Consequently, the growing contention on the conceptualizing some of the cultural models discussed above, have calls for the need for developing an instrument, which measures culture at the individual level of analysis, as none of the above discussed cultural models is designed to measure culture at this level of analysis. For instance, the GLOBE's (2004) and Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) studies on culture, were designed to measure culture at the societal and organizational level respectively, while that of Hofstede's model was designed to measure culture at the national level of analysis.

Having been found in these web of tangles, the researcher realized that, by adapting the Hofstede's model of national culture to the individual level, which is though practicable, would requires some theoretical and contextual justifications, in addition to the restructuring of the adapted instrument. Interestingly, the way out of this web of tangle was however, found in the works of Dorfman and Howell's (1988), where the measurement scale of Hofstede's (1980) model of national culture were analyzed and adapted to culture at the individual level of analysis.

In the final analysis, the adaption of the Dorfman and Howell's (1988) measurement instrument of culture in this study has thus, provides a theoretical justification for its usage. This adaption is contextually consistent with the studies of Wahjudi, Singgih, Suwignjo, and Baihaqi (2016), on organizational culture and firm's performance in Indonesia, Azam's (2015) study on the ICT diffusion by SMEs in Bangladesh, and Nazarian and Atkinson's (2012) study of the Iranian private companies, where culture was studied at the individual level of analysis, using the individual cultural value scale (CVSCALE) developed by Dorfman and Howell (1988).

Although, this Dorfman and Howells' (1988) measurement scale was designed, in line with that of Hofstede's (1980) dimensions of national culture, its measures of culture was done at the individual level analysis. The main reason for its adaption in this thesis therefore, owed to its measure of national culture at the individual level of analysis, which is in line with those previously cited researchers and in conformity with the unit of analysis adopted in this present study.

Nevertheless, the Hofstede's works on culture have, sometimes been opened to a number of criticisms. For instance, the model has been criticized, either as lacking in construct validity or reliability, or in relation to the aptness of the model, which has resulted from time lapses (McCoy, Gellatta, & King, 2005). Other criticisms borders on the issue of its generalizability, due to its sampling frame, and/or even on the basis of its level of analysis, in which culture was likened to political boundaries (McSweeney, 2002).

Some researchers have even extended the criticisms to its sources of data, which they alleged was obtained from a single corporation, and collected for a period of over twenty years, in addition to its usage of a country's mean scores, which was substantially, obscured the within the country's variations (Smith, 1992). However, in spite of all the above criticisms leveled against the model, the Hofstede's (1980, 1991) models of culture, remains a major reference point to many other researchers in the field of cultural studies (Smith, 1992).

It would however, be of interest to note that subsequent researches in the field of business and management has however, reconfirmed the construct validity of the Hofstede's cultural model, and the importance of its measurements (Merritt, 2000). Hence, the model

was seen to compare favorably with that of other models in the field of culture, as it has been reported to have similar strong convergent validity with that of Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's (1997) model, in contrast to that of GLOBE's and Schwartz's constructs, which were reported to have a weakest convergent validity (Magnusson et al., 2008).

3.5.3 Culture and Entrepreneurs' Success

In a bid to clearly understand the effect of cultural diversity on business success, (Kochan, et al., 2003) report on a study conducted by some industry's chief executives and professional human resource experts, under the auspices of a non-profit making organization known as Business Opportunities for Leadership Diversity (BOLD) Initiative. The studies aim at helping the American firms on ways of leveraging on the diversity in culture to achieve competitive advantage. The study reports that the more culturally diverse a firm workforce is, the more effectiveness the organization will be. The study further calls for more women and minorities participation in business.

In a bid to investigate how culture, as a core value system, helps in shaping the development of definite personality traits, which motivates individuals to engage in certain behaviours, Mueller and Thomas (2000) adopted the Hofstede's (1980) models of culture to examine how the cultural dimensions of individualism and uncertainty avoidance, impacts the entrepreneur's personality traits of innovativeness and internal locus of control. This two serves as the potential entrepreneurial behaviours, which ensures business success. The findings from this study reveals that, not only are some cultures more conducive than others, in term of entrepreneurship, but also, the

entrepreneurial trait of innovativeness and internal locus of control are more likely found in individualistic, low uncertainty avoidance cultures, than in collectivistic, high uncertainty avoidance cultures.

Rauch, Frese and Sonnentag (2000), attempt a comparative study of the influence of cultural differential on the business success of small scale businesses in Ireland and in West and East Germany. The study draws on sample of 102 East German, 98 West German, and 77 Irish small scale-enterprises. Findings from the study reveals that whereas planning positively influenced business success in Germany, it has a negative influence in Ireland. In addition, the study shows that the positive mediating influence of planning strategies on the relationship between business success and owners' achievement orientations in Germany, and its negative influence in Ireland, are consequence of the Hofstede's (1991) cultural dimension of uncertainty avoidance in Germany.

As a response to slow pace of implementation of the enterprise resource planning (ERP) systems in some organisations, Chadhar and Rahmati (2004), conducted a research to examine the comparative influence of culture between two nationalities on the implementation of enterprise resource planning (ERP). The study uses a sample drawn from employees of two countries (i.e., Australia and Saudi Arabia), who are opposite of each other in terms of culture, but who works for same company, using same systems, performing same functions, and carrying out same job responsibilities. Findings from this study reveals that the Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions of individualism, uncertainty avoidance, and power distance, were influential in in the success of the enterprise resource system (ERP).

Consistent with the findings of the study of Chadhar and Rahmati (2004) is a study conducted by Sheu, Chae, and Yang (2004) to examine the influence of national culture on the success of enterprise resource planning (ERP) system's implementation. This study uses secondary sources of data obtained from several companies operating in countries, such as Taiwan, U.S.A., China, and Europe. The findings from the study shows that national culture has influence on their training programme, which serves as a key factor in success of enterprise resource planning (ERP).

In order to determine the importance of *guanxi* (connections) in business success of countries, like China, Japan, Korea, Taiwan, and Hong Kong, who have been influenced by the teachings of Confucius (551- 478 B.C.), Yeung and Tung (1996) conducted a semi-structure interviews on samples draw from 19 heads of companies in China. Their choice of sample was based on the referral from relatives and friends. These company's heads were asked to rank the 11 factors that guarantees their long-term business success in China, in the order of its importance, and *guanxi* (connections), remains the only consistently chosen item on the list as the core source of success among these firms.

Consistent with ethno-geographical locations of enterprises, Aluko (2003), examines the multi-dimensional effects of culture on organizational success of three selected textile mills in Nigeria. The study adopted a stratified sampling technique and uses a semi-structured questionnaire to elicit information from the respondents, which comprises the workers, owners and customers, and a logistic regression analysis was employed in analyzing the data obtained from the respondents. Findings from this study reveals the existence a significant positive relationship between culture and the firm's success.

In a bid to ascertain the influence of national culture and firm's management controls on the success of Asian manufacturing firms in producing quality and superior products at lower cost, Chow, Shields, and Chan, (1991) conducted an experimental study with a view to examine the direct effects of management control and national culture on the performance manufacturing firms. The study adopts the Hofstede's (1980) model of cultural dimension of individualism versus collectivism for the study because of its work-related attributes. Findings reveal that both the management control and the Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimension of individualism versus collectivism have independent and non-interactive effects on the success of the manufacturing firms.

In a bid to fully appreciate the role of culture on the performance of multinational corporations, Halkos and Tzeremes (2008) conducted a study using the techniques of performance measurement and theories of strategic management. The empirical evidence obtained from the study reveals that the national culture of a home country, have positive influence on the attainment of success by the multinational corporations (MNCs).

Similar in a study on the role of culture in the performance of international business firms, Kessapidou and Varsakelis (2002) examine the extent at which national culture influences firm's performance. The study draws on a sample of 478 foreign affiliates or subsidiary firms in Greece, which is an economic periphery of the European Union. Findings from the study confirms the hypothesized propositions that, the higher the national culture's distance from the firm's home country of origin to Greece, the higher the performance would be in their host countries, and secondly, the higher the dimension individualism in the firm's home country, the higher would be the performance of its subsidiary/affiliate, in the collectivistic society.

Also, a study of the most decisive factor that exerts influence on international trade, which did not only contribute the national economic performance, but also impact on success of international firms, Chaiyabut (2013) examines the influence of culture on international trade by drawing on sample of 100 respondents, selected randomly from Thailand and UK through the use of questionnaire. Additionally, a range of 5-10 e-mail interviews were conducted with business officers and senior members of the international companies situated in Thailand. The findings from the study reveals that culture did not only contribute to international business success but it also, shows that the awareness of cultural differential between countries, impact positively on international business effectiveness.

Naidu and Chand (2017) conduct an investigation with a view to examine how culture moderates the relationship between the obstacles faced by women and the attainment of success in micro, small, and medium enterprises operated by women entrepreneurs. The empirical data for the study were generated through self-administered questionnaire obtained from a sample of 210 respondents of which, 160 questionnaires were found useable.

However, the study uses the Pearson's correlation coefficient to determine the relationship between gender inequality barriers and women entrepreneur's success, and then employs a moderated regression analysis to ascertain the interaction term between culture and gender inequality barriers. Findings reveal that culture moderates the relationship between the gender inequality barriers and women entrepreneur's success in the micro, small, and medium enterprises. This finding shows that the relationship

between the barriers caused by gender inequality and women entrepreneur's success is influenced by culture.

Hypothesis III

There is a significant relationship between culture and women entrepreneurs' business success in Northwestern Nigeria.

3.5.4 Culture as a Moderator

Drawing on the extant literature of management and entrepreneurship, the concept of culture has featured in several capacities. For example, culture have been used, either as an independent (predicting) variable, dependent (criterion) variable or, as a moderating (contingent) variable. However, its role as a moderator have been found in several studies (Brancu, et al., 2015; Wen, et al., 2012; Lee, et al., 2011) which yields varying results. In relation to business success, culture have been used by various scholars as a moderator in several relationships, with some of its dimensions yielding, either positive or negative results. Typical among such studies can be found in the works of several scholars, which are discussed below.

Sheikh, et al. (2013) examine the moderating effects of individually held cultural values on the relationship between supervisors' transformational leadership behavior and the subordinates job behavior of the Middle Eastern organizations in United Arab Emirates. With a survey data of 229 employees drawn from ten organizations, hierarchical regression analysis was employed as the tool of analysis. Their findings were similar to what obtains in Western countries, where transformational leadership are seen to have positive effect on job involvement.

In addition, the individual cultural values orientation was found to moderate the relationship between supervisor's transformational behavior and job involvement of the subordinates, with the cultural dimension of collectivism being found to exert positive influence on the relationship between transformational leadership and subordinates job involvement. The cultural dimension of uncertainty avoidance was, on the other hand, found to negatively influence the relationship between the supervisor's transformational behavior and job involvement.

In a similar study aimed at determining the influence of cultural differential on the efficacy of investment in manufacturing practices and business operational performance, Wiengarten et al. (2010), conducted a research to know whether organization performance differential exists in a situation where organizations, operating in a different cultural environment, invest in similar manufacturing practices. In providing answers to the research questions, data obtained from the global manufacturing research group (GMRG) were analyzed using regression analysis, and the findings obtained clearly indicates that, some aspects of the Hofstede's (1980) dimensions of national culture moderates, to a greater extent, the degree at which investment in manufacturing practices increase the business operational performances.

Another related study, carried out with a view to examine the role of business planning on business success, which is in response to business planning efforts in different environment and under different cultural settings was in the works of Brinckmann et al. (2010). Brinckmann et al. (2010), employs a meta-analytical approach in assessing the importance of the business planning and performance relationship with a focus on the contextual factors that moderates this relationship.

This study employs the Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimension of uncertainty avoidance in determining the moderating effect of culture on this relationship. The study adopts an evidence-based approach in synthesizing 46 previous empirical researches of 11,046 organizations, comprising both newly and already established small businesses. However, to achieve its objective, the study used a combination of bivariate and meta-regression analysis in analyzing the obtained data, and findings from this analysis reveals that, even though planning is beneficial to organizations, contextual factors, in forms of a firm's newness and cultural environment, impacts significantly on the relationship between planning and performance. This finding confirms that, although business planning increases the business performance of both newly and already established firms, such relationship is strengthened by using different cultural dimensions as the moderating factor, with the relationships being positively stronger in long established firms than in newly established ones.

Additionally, Smith et al. (2011) examine some groups of employees, who occupies different managerial and leadership positions from 56 nations in relation to their sources of guidance in the handling of work events. The study uses a correlation between the managerial source of guidance and the perceived effectiveness in the ways by which events are handled, to denote the cognitive schemas and attributional inclination of their effectiveness. The study then, predicts variations in the correlation between the managerial sources of guidance, in its relation to the dimension of the national culture. Data obtained from 7,701 respondents were used to test the hypothesized relationship and findings showed that, reliance on one's training, experience, formal procedures and rules, and on one's subordinates, have a direct correlational effect on the globally perceived

effectiveness, while reliance on colleagues, superiors, and unwritten rules, are negatively correlated with the perceived effectiveness. However, a cross-level correlation of this analysis confirmed the hypothesis, by specifying how each of the correlation is moderated by each of the dimension of national culture identified by Hofstede (1980) cultural model.

Furthermore, Brettel, et al. (2008), attempt a cross-cultural comparison of the antecedents of market orientation by examining the influence of geographical setting on market orientation, with specific focus on the effects of national culture on the relationship between market orientation and its antecedents. This study draws on sample data from various organizations operating in three different countries of Germany, Indonesia and Thailand. The study employed a PLS_SEM to analyze the obtained data, and findings showed the impact of national culture on the antecedents of market orientation.

Additionally, Walumbwa and Lawler (2003) in their study of the moderating effect of culture on the relationship between work-related outcomes, transformational leadership and perceptions of employees' withdrawal behaviors, used a sample data obtained from India, China, and Kenya, and found that, the Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimension of collectivism, moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and performance. This was depicted by the increase in organizational commitment and job satisfaction among the employees.

In a related study, Ramachandran and Krishnan (2009) also draws on a sample of 98 employees from various organizations in U.S., China, and India, and uses the Hofstede's Value Survey Module (VSM 94) to examine the moderating effect of culture on the

relationship between transformational leadership and employees' normative and affective commitment. Results from the correlation analysis showed that, culture moderates the influence of transformational leadership on both normative and affective commitments, with the normative commitment having a positive significant relationship on transformational leadership in China and India, than that of U.S., while the affective commitment shows a positive significant relationship on transformational leadership more in India and U.S., than in China. However, the most outstanding result of this study was on the relationship between transformational leadership and the employees' organizational commitment, especially the normative commitment, which was found to be stronger in a collectivistic culture than it was in individualistic cultures.

Furthermore, Luu and Hattruo (2010) investigate the relationship between employees' job satisfaction and turnover intentions by showing how differences in the Hofstede's (1980) uncertainty avoidance and individualism/collectivism's dimensions of national culture moderates this relationship. The study draws on data obtained from opinion survey of large multinational organizations in four countries, namely, United States, Japan, France, and the Philippines, and make a comparison between their level job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Findings from this study reveals a significant strong relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions in France and U.S., than it was found in Philippines and Japan, thereby, supporting their earlier hypothesis that employees turnover intention relates strongly to job satisfaction in countries higher individualism, than found in countries that are lower in individualism.

Conclusively, Kreiser, Marino, Kuratko, and Weaver (2013), examine the moderating effect of the Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimension of individualism/collectivism on the

relationship between the disaggregated dimensions of entrepreneurial orientation and SMEs performance. The sample of the study were randomly drawn from the data bases of nine countries. Mail survey questionnaires were used as the instrument of the study, except for Greece, where the survey was carried out through self-administered questionnaire due to their poor postal services, and Mexico, where 650 interviews were conducted. A total sample of 1,668 firms participated in the survey. Hierarchical regression analysis was used to test the hypothesized relationship, and findings reveals that, except for risk taking-individualism, which interaction with performance was not significant, the linear interaction term between innovativeness-individualism and proactiveness-individualism, were found to be significant and positively related to firm's performance.

The above discussion presents some of the previous studies where culture or some of its dimensions have been used as a moderator in relation to business performance or success. This signifies that culture has been a strong moderator between different independent/predicting and dependent/criterion constructs relationship. However, in none of these previous studies has culture been used to moderate the relationship between the dual human capabilities of entrepreneurial competencies and entrepreneurial orientation on business success. This vacuum however, constitute a theoretical gap, which this study seeks to fill. On this note, the researcher tentatively postulates that culture moderates the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneurs' success as stated in hypothesis III, and that culture moderates the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' business success, as stated in hypothesis IV below.

Hypothesis IV

Culture moderates the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneurs' business success.

Hypothesis V

Culture moderates the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' business success.

3.6 The Underpinning Theories

Theories are formal and testable explanation of events, which offers explanation how things relate to one another (Zikmund, Babin, Carr, and Griffin, 2013). A theory therefore, consists of a set of coherent propositions, which explains some phenomena, and describe ways by which other things are related to the phenomena (Zikmund et al., 2013). Hence, in this study, two theories have been used to underpin the study by providing explanations on how the variables of this studies relates to one another. These theories provide explanations on how the moderating influence of culture affects the dual individual capabilities of entrepreneurial competencies and entrepreneurial orientation and results in business success of women entrepreneurs in northwestern geo-political zone of Nigeria. These two underpinning theories are the Resource-Based View (Microfoundation) and Contingency Theory.

3.6.1 Resource-Based View (RBV) (Microfoundations)

One of the most widely used theories in the field of management literature is the Resource-Based View (RBV) of the firm (Runyan, Huddleston, & Swinney, 2006; Beard

& Sumner, 2004). The major thrust of the theory (RBV) is on its focused on the firms' competitive advantage, which they were able to generate from the set of their unique resources (Peteraf, 1993; Barney, 1991, 1986).

The knowledge about the sources of the sustained competitive advantage (SCA) of the firms has attracted a considerable attention among researchers in field of strategic management (Barney, 1991; Grant, 1991; Porter, 1985). Hence, the source of a firm sustained competitive advantage forms an interesting area of research in strategic management (Peteraf, 1993; Barney, 1986; Wernerfelt, 1984). The earliest proponent of the theory was Penrose (1959), who, in a book titled *Theory of the Growth of Firm*, provides a typical subjective perspective to the study of firms' resources.

However, the first coherent articulation of the RBV was contained in the works of Wernerfelt (1984). The Wernerfelt's (1984) article on "*A resource-based view of the Firm*", argues on the effect of resources, as the strategic asset, in attaining competitive advantage by the firm. This theory conceives organization as having broader sets of resources, other than the known traditional categorization of land, capital and labour. Wernerfelt (1984), in conjunction with other researchers (Porter, 1985; Learned, Christensen, Andrews, & Guth, 1969), adopted RBV theory from a strategic view point by considering resources as the strength used by firms in formulating and implementing their strategies. On this premise that Grant (1991) argue that the only two essential ingredients of strategy formulation are the firm's resources and capabilities.

The most distinguishing characteristic of RBV is on its focus on the firms' internal resources. This firm's internal resources (i.e., internal strength and weaknesses) are

inspire by two basic assumptions (Barney, 1991). The first one is the assumption of that firms consist of bundles of productive resources, otherwise known as the firm's resource heterogeneity, and the second assumption, which perceives firm's resources as costly to copy, or as having an inelastic supply, which is otherwise, known as resource immobility.

Nevertheless, the first underlying assumption of the firm's internal resources, which focused on heterogeneity of resources, serves as the most important condition of Resource-Based View (Barney, 1991). This is because the RBV assumes that some resource bundles and capabilities, which underlies production, are heterogeneous across firms (Barney, 1991), and it is this heterogeneity of resource that forms the basis for entrepreneurship (Kirzner, 1997).

The second assumption, which is the immobility of resources, focused on the firm's resources that are possessed by handful of competing firms. A proper exploit of these resource opportunities, gives the firm the capability of neutralizing its threats. Nevertheless, these firm's bundles of resources (Alvarez & Busenitz, 2001; Eisenhardt & Martin, 2000), which serves at its main source of sustained competitive advantage, are valuable, rare, inimitable, and non-substitutable, and helps firm to achieve a sustained competitive advantage (VRIN) (Eisenhardt and Martin, 2000; Barney, 1997).

Furthermore, RBV conceives firm's resources as consisting of tangible and intangible assets (Wernerfelt, 1995, Grant, 1991), which has the capability of generating profits and avoid losses (Miller & Shamsie, 1996). The tangible assets comprise capital (finance), machinery, supplies, location among others. However, these groups of assets are defined and easily imitable.

The intangible assets on the other hand, takes the forms of firm's reputation, entrepreneurial orientation, and competencies (i.e., knowledge, skills, and abilities) of the entrepreneurs (Runyan et al., 2006). These resources are very difficult to quantify and not easily definable (Todorovic, & Ma, 2008). Hence, the theory argues that the secret behind a firm's growth and success lies in its ability to gain sustained competitive advantage over its competitors, through these set of unique heterogeneous bundles of internal resources, and that of its superior competencies and capabilities (Peteraf, 1993).

However, an understanding of the macro level explanation of resources and capabilities in strategic management would be incomplete, without a substantial knowledge of the explanatory mechanisms, which are located at the micro level of individual analysis (Abell, Felin, & Foss, 2008). This is because, no mechanism solely operates at the macro level without its corresponding micro level perspective. It is this notion of 'micro level' perspectives of the heterogeneous bundles of resources (i.e., level of individual actions and interactions) that brought the exploration of the RBV at the individual level of microfoundations to the limelight (Barney, Ketchen Jr, & Wright, 2011; Coff & Kryscynski, 2011; Felin & Foss, 2009).

The RBV at the microfoundations emphasized on the importance of human capital (i.e. intangible resources), as a great source of the firm's sustained competitive advantage. Hence, Itami and Roehl (1987) stress on the role of invisible (i.e., intangible) resources in the overall fit of the organization by arguing that these intangible assets forms part of firm's resources that can be exploited by the entrepreneur to achieve a sustainable competitive advantage over the competitors.

The microfoundations of resource and capabilities are strengthened by the human capital resource (i.e., individual knowledge, skills, and abilities) (Hall, 1993; Coff & Kryscynski, 2011). These human resources serve as a great source for attaining a sustained competitive advantage for the firm (Barney, 1991). Hence, individuals who are high in human capital resource (i.e., intangible resources), were found to exhibit a better chance of creating resources and capabilities that are very, valuable, rare, inimitable, and non-substitutable by their competitors (Hall, 1993; Barney, 1991).

Although, the significant role of human capital in the attainment of sustained competitive advantage by the firm, dates back to the origin of the RBV itself, but the fundamental mechanisms that tied human capital to the competitive advantage of the firm, are yet to be fully explored (Barney, 1991). Hence, the calls to drill down into the microfoundations of resources and capabilities for a better understanding of the critical role of the entrepreneurs in creating a sustained competitive advantage for the firm (Abell, Felin, & Foss, 2008; Teece, 2007; Felin & Hesterly, 2007).

The microfoundations perspective of RBV is therefore, a strategic management affair which is deeply rooted in the actions and interactions of individual (Abell, Felin, & Foss, 2008; Teece, 2007; Felin & Hesterly, 2007; Felin & Foss, 2005). Hence, its emergence as a strategic management derives from its fundamental goal of enabling the entrepreneurs/managers to gain sustained competitive advantage in business over their competitors (Foss, 2011).

In line with the microfoundations perspective of the RBV, a woman entrepreneur is conceptualized as an individual owner-manager of a business who is high in human

capital resource, due to her possession of intangible heterogeneous resources and capabilities (i.e., individual knowledge, skills, and abilities). Hence, the study proposes entrepreneurial competencies and individual entrepreneurial orientation, as the dual intangible heterogeneous human capital resources of a entrepreneur, which when combined with the tangible resources of the firm, have the tendency of given the entrepreneur a sustained competitive advantage over its competitors (Barney, 1997), and lead to a successful business performance.

Conclusively, this proposition is based on the fact that the two bundles of heterogeneous resources (i.e., tangible and intangible) are conceived as valuable, rare, non-substitutable, and perfectly inimitable (Barney, 1991; Hall, 1993; Hatch & Dyer, 2004), which micro-entrepreneurs can leveraged upon to achieve a sustained competitive advantage over the competitors (Barney, 1997) and attain success in their businesses.

3.6.2 Contingency Theory

Another popular theory that have been extensively used by researchers in the field of entrepreneurship, management, accounting, sociology, and indeed, in most behavioural and social science researches, in explaining relationship among a given sets of variables is the contingency theory. The extensive usage of the theory explains the reason why several models in social and behavioural sciences are developed along the theory. The theory derives its instinct from organizational theories, which core concept is on how to properly align the internal and external factors of the organization to positively, enhance firm's performance (Rauch et al., 2009). According to this theory, enterprise aligns its organizational characteristics with the environmental factors to create a fit between the organization structure, strategy, and the competitive circumstances (Donaldson, 2001).

The theory emanates from the criticisms that characterised the universal approach which had earlier on, dominates the scene of management sciences, by stressing on the fact that, there is no one best way of doing things, especially in the aspect of leading, organizing and decision making (Luthans & Stewart, 1977). The theory ascribed effectiveness or performance of a firm, to the internal and external factors (i.e., contingencies) (Rauch et al., 2009; Wang, 2008).

However, the earlier proponents of contingency theory (Luthans & Stewart, 1977; Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967; Woodward, et al., 1965) had argued that, to efficiently organized and structure a firm, certain contingency factors need to be accounted for. This, in essence, suggest that in order to determine the effects of organizational structure on organizational performance, certain contextual factors must to be put into consideration. For instance, in a study on how the organizational structure affects firm's performance conducted by Woodward et al. (1965), it was reveals that the performance differential among firms were based, not on the organizational structure, but rather, on how well the organisational structure aligns with the firm's technology to achieve congruence. Hence, the focus of contingency theory (Luthans & Stewart, 1977; Hofer, 1975; Luthans, 1973) is on how the relationship between these organizational factors and performance, are influenced by situational or contingency variables to achieve congruence (Donaldson, 2001).

To this end, researches in extant literature have confirmed that success in business is better achieved, if all the necessary organizational variables are properly aligned to achieve congruence or fit (Donaldson, 2001; Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967). In building on this fitness in the alignment of variables to attain congruence or fit in business, Miller and

Toulouse (1986) examine the relationship between, CEOs personality, structure, strategy, and decision making on firm's performance and the interactional effects of these contextual relationship reveals that the strategy of innovation is more favourable to the organization in an environment that is dynamic, than in a stable environment.

Therefore, using a proper alignment of variables as its basic assumption (Rauch et al., 2009), contingency theory has become one of the most extensively used theory in the field of entrepreneurship research. A typical study in which contingency theory has featured can be found in the works of Chowdhury (2011), who argue on the needs for aligning the structural configuration of the firms in such a way that it will facilitates growth, in a response to the type of customer-driven complex strategy that is being adopted by the firm.

Another related study of this nature was that of Patel and Conklin (2012), where contingency theory was used to examine how group culture and labour productivity results in high performance for the firm. With group culture serving as the contextual variable, the study shows a strong significant effect of culture on performance as compare to when this contextual variable was absent. Hence, the fundamental idea of using contingency theory in the field of entrepreneurship is on the ways of aligning entrepreneurial actions, within a given context, to achieve best results (Wiklund & Shepherd, 2005a), by emphasizing on congruence or fit between context and structure to achieve organizational performance.

However, with the crux of the contingency theory being on achieving congruence between context and structure among the essential variables of the study, it therefore

holds that, the relationship between one variable in relation to that of the other variable is contingent on the contextual variable (Rauch et al., 2009). Thus, by drawing an inference from the study of Patel and Conklin (2012), this study conceptualized culture as the contextual variable, and the dual human capabilities of entrepreneurial competencies and orientation as the entrepreneurial actions that would result in business success.

In conclusion, given the above empirical support for contingency theory across various organizational settings, this study then proposed that the theory would offer an empirical support for culture as the contextual variable of the study, which moderates the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and entrepreneurial competencies in relation to business success of women entrepreneurs. In the context of this study therefore, the researcher postulates that the effect of the bivariate relationships between individual entrepreneurial orientation and entrepreneurial competencies, on the dependent variable, which is women entrepreneurs' business success, would be further, strengthened by culture which serves as the contingent variable of the study.

3.7 Hypothesized Theoretical Framework

The two underpinning theories adopted in this study are the Resource-Based View (RBV) and Contingency Theory. The former (i.e., RBT) being the main theory with the latter standing as a supportive to the main theory. The independent/predicting variables of the study are entrepreneurial competencies and entrepreneurial orientation while the dependent/criterion variable is women entrepreneurs' business success. These two independent variables were perceived as the dual entrepreneurs' capabilities that ensures business success at the micro level of business operation, while culture, which is the moderator, serves as the contingent variable in the study. While both the entrepreneurial

competencies and entrepreneurial orientation constructs represent the reflective constructs that directly influence women business success, the reflective items of culture serve as the contingent/moderating variable that would affect the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies, entrepreneurial orientation and entrepreneurial success.



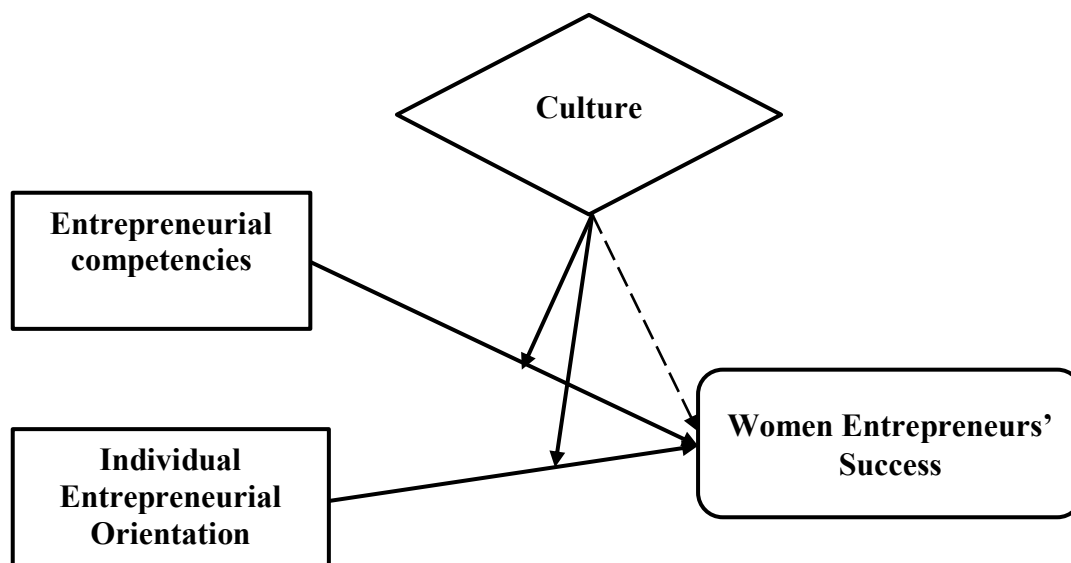


Figure 3.1
Theoretical Framework

3.8 Theories that Support the Relationships of the Constructs used in this Study

In this study, the microfoundation perspective of the Resource Based View (RBV) was used to examine the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. This perspective of RBV stressed on the importance of human capital resource as the most valuable asset that is very critical in attaining business success and achieving a sustained competitive advantage by the firm (Barney & Foss, 2013; Barney, et al., 2011; Coff & Kryscynski, 2011; Foss, 2010; Felin & Foss, 2009).

Microfoundations suggests that the success of a business is influenced by the entrepreneur's capability, which was proposed in this study as the entrepreneurial competencies and entrepreneurial orientation. These dual capabilities of human attributes are the micro-foundations source of intangible human resource capabilities, which are of great value (Wernerfelt, 1984), and very critical to the success of a business. However,

these intangible resources are embedded in the entrepreneurs, and they serve as source of competitive advantage to the business when the entrepreneurs (Alvarez & Barney, 2007; Wernerfelt, 1984; Penrose, 1959) potentially discharge them.

However, mere possession of these entrepreneurial capabilities by the entrepreneurs does not guarantee success, but the important thing is on how the entrepreneurs dispense off these attributes to attain success in their business operation. On the basis of this discussion, this present study placed the dual entrepreneur's capabilities of entrepreneurial competencies and entrepreneurial orientation in the context of micro-foundations perspective of the RBV by explaining how an entrepreneur utilizes his/her valuable, rare, inimitable, and non-substitutable resources and capabilities, to attain success in their business operations. This human resource is consider as the important predictors of business success (Mitchelmore & Rowley, 2010; Markman, 2007).

Consequently, the study places culture as the contingent variable, which moderates the relationships between entrepreneurial competencies, entrepreneurial orientation and women business success. Culture is then proposed in this study as a contextual external contingent variable of the business (Rauch et al., 2009; Wang, 2008) which, when properly aligned with the human capital resource, would strengthen the bivariate relationship between the two independent variables in their link with the dependent variable, to enhance the success of the business operations.

Table 3.6
Summary of Research hypotheses, Research Questions, and Research Objectives

No.	Hypotheses	Research Questions	Research Objectives
1	There is a significant relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneurs' business success in northwestern Nigeria	Is there a significant relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneurs' business success?	To examine the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneurs' business success
2	There is a significant relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' business success in Northwestern Nigeria	Is there a significant relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' business success?	To examine the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' business success.
3	There is a significant relationship between culture and women entrepreneurs' business success in Northwestern Nigeria	Is there a significant relationship between culture and women entrepreneurs' business success?	To examine the relationship between culture and women entrepreneurs' business success
4	Culture moderates the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneurs' business success.	Does culture moderate the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneurs' business success?	To determine the moderating effect of culture on the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneurs' business success.
5	Culture moderates the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' business success.	Does culture moderate the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' business success?	To determine the moderating effect of culture on the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' business success.

3.9 Summary of the Chapter

The chapter attempts a critical review of the past theoretical and empirical literature of all the four constructs of the study. It attempts an exposition of the concept of business success as measured by several indicators both at the firm (i.e., financial) and individual (i.e., non-financial) levels analysis, and goes further to provide justifications for the choice of non-financial indicators of business success which form the focus of the study.

Sequel to the conceptual expatiation of the independent constructs (i.e., entrepreneurial competencies and entrepreneurial orientation) the study further discusses the relationships between these constructs and the dependent construct (i.e., women business success). The outcome of these relationship is far from being conclusive, which suggest a need for further research to be carried out among the relationship and hence, the

introduction of a moderator. Culture was proposed in this study, as a moderator to determine its influence on the constructs under review in relation to the dependent variable. The interactions among these constructs led to the emergence of four postulated hypotheses, which were further tested in chapter five of this study.

The chapter went further to discuss the underpinning theories that explains the relationships among the studied variables, and then discusses how the developed theoretical framework fits into these theories.



CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

The focus of this chapter is on the discussion of the methods and techniques that were adopted in carrying out this research. It comprises the research design, population of the study, sample size and sampling technique, operationalization of the variables, questionnaire design, data collection method and data collection procedure, technique of data analysis, test of validity and reliability, and ends with the pilot studies.

4.2 Research Design

A research design often serves as a roadmap that guides the conduct of a study. It stipulates what would and what would not be observed in a study (Davis, 2005; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2008). It also encompasses the types of investigation which is to be conducted, the location or place where the investigation is to be carried out, the extent of the researcher's interference in the investigation, and the time horizon for carrying out the research (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). A research design can be classified into three basic categories (Zikmund, et al., 2013), which are discussed below.*-\

The first category of a research design is the survey/non-experimental research design, which comprises the use of interviews, observation, and questionnaires. The second one is the experimental research design, which is carried out in the laboratory, and third one is the historical research design, which relies on the use of secondary sources of data. In this study, the survey/ non-experimental method, which uses structured questionnaire was adopted. This survey method serves a way of gathering primary data by interacting with a

representative sample of the population (Zikmund et al., 2013). Hence, for the purpose of this study, primary data were gathered through surveys, and were later compiled for the purpose of analysis.

In a survey research design of this nature, the researcher has no control regarding what effects the independent or predicting variables would have on the dependent or criterion variables. All the researcher does in this form of research is to influence the measurement instrument he/she uses, but he/she cannot interfere in the research settings. In this study therefore, a description of the demographic characteristics of women micro entrepreneurs in the selected states in northwest geo-political zone of Nigeria, which constitute the population of the study, was done. These descriptions were carried out, for the purpose of identifying the features of the studied variable in the given circumstance (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013).

However, with a study on women entrepreneur's business success, at the micro level of operation being the focus, a survey method of research design was deemed fit to be the most appropriate method for realizing the goal of the study. Consequently, the study uses a cross-sectional form of survey research, which entails a one-time collection of data from the population at a single point in time in order to achieve the objectives of the research (Bichi 2004; Cavana, Dalahaye & Sekaran, 2001). The usefulness of this single snapshot method of data collection procedure is that, it saves the time of the researcher and it is cost effective (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013; Wilson, 2010).

Nevertheless, every research design is affected by the philosophical foundation of the researcher's perception of reality and how this is conceived. Hence, the two popular

philosophical divides in the field of social sciences, which are the positivism and social constructionism or interpretivism, were discussed in the next section to further justify the position of the researcher.

4.3 Research Philosophy

A research philosophy, which is otherwise, referred to as the research paradigm, is seen as the “basic belief system or world view that guides an investigation” (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 105). Research paradigm, can be further classified into two broad categories, namely: the interpretivist and positivist paradigms (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Myers, 2013).

The interpretivist’s paradigm, otherwise known as constructivist, or anti-positivist, was a creation of a German philosopher and mathematician, Edmund Husserl (1859-1938). The assumption of this paradigm is that, human social activities can be studied qualitatively, through any of these ways, namely: personal interviews, direct observation, and case studies, (Neuman, 2011).

The interpretivist’s paradigm argued that, though the positivist’s philosophy finds its usefulness on the subject of exactitude on issues, as obtained in the field of natural sciences, it is not adequately enough for seeking knowledge in the field of social sciences. This is because, the concept of social reality itself is neither external nor objective in nature, but rather, it is seen as a subjective form of a socially constructed phenomenon, where the researchers and participants interact for a better understanding of the issues under investigation from the individual’s perspective (Creswell, 2009; Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Hence, in the interpretivist’s research paradigm, a qualitative method of

data gathering procedure is mostly employed, with the researcher, forming part of the issues that are being examined.

Furthermore, the qualitative method of data collection has been widely employed in the field of social sciences research because it often gives researchers an in-depth understanding of the result obtained through a quantitative method (Boje, 2001). Thus, with the focus of social sciences research being on subjective realities, it has been argued that the most appropriate method of study which gives an in-depth understanding of reality is through the qualitative method (Vaivio, 2008; Cassell, Symon, Buehring, & Johnson, 2006).

On the other side of the philosophical divide is the positivist research philosophy or paradigm, which runs in contrast to the views of the interpretivist's paradigm. This research's paradigm was developed by a French sociologist, Auguste Comte (1798-1857) and it has subsequently, becomes one the most widely employed research paradigms in the field of social sciences research (Neuman, 2011).

The positivist paradigm employs a quantitative method of investigation, by leaning on high degree of certainty to gain knowledge into the world of reality (Dallas & Grimmer, 2007). This is because the positivists believe that the knowledge of social reality can be understood, only without the interference of the researcher (Scotland, 2012). Hence, the positivists assume that social realities can be quantitatively, represented by using correlation and experimentation in determining a cause-and-effect relationship among variables (Creswell, 2009). Thus, the positivists are social researchers who place emphasis on a value-free science, use the exact quantitative measures, statistically testing

the causal theories, and stresses on the significance of replicative studies, especially, in different environmental settings (Neuman, 2011).

Drawing an inference from the above discussion, this study therefore, adopts the positivist paradigm, which is based on objectivism. This is because, the chosen variables for the research have been empirically, investigated in previous studies, and the essence of this present study is to further investigate, if similar relationships would exist among them in a different environmental context.

On this premise, the focus of this present study is not on developing a new theory, but rather, on testing and verifying the existing ones. This is achievable by employing a deductive research approach, which uses a quantitative method, in testing of hypotheses developed for the study. A deductive research design of this nature therefore, allows for drawing of conclusions, which are generalizable, based on the findings obtained from the study.

4.4 Population of the study

Population refers to the collection of a clearly defined set of elements, which may comprise people, objects, places or cases, to which a researcher makes inferences (Cooper & Schindler, 2009). A population is a collection of data whose properties are examine in a given research setting (Sekaran & Bougie 2010). According to Cavana, et al. (2001), population is conceived as a collection of subjects of interest, which needs to be studied. Creswell (2012) views population as a group of individuals with similar characteristics and other common features, which can be identified and studied by a researcher.

In relation to this study, population is taken to mean total number of women entrepreneurs in northwestern part of Nigeria who engages in micro businesses. Based on the Small and Medium Enterprises Development Agency of Nigeria (SMEDAN) (2013a) report, the total population of registered women entrepreneurs in the four chosen states of the northwest geo-political zone (i.e., Katsina, Kebbi, Sokoto and Zamfara states), are 1,443,065.

4.5 Sampling Techniques

Sampling is the process of selecting the required number of elements from a given population, such that the characteristics of the selected sample can be generalized to the entire population (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). There are two types of sampling techniques which are commonly discussed in literature. These are the probability (random) and non-probability (non-random) sampling.

A probability sampling procedure is one in which the elements of the population being investigated have equal chance of being chosen. This sampling technique is commonly used in studies where generalizability of findings is the ultimate aim of the researcher. A probability sampling technique is further classified into simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified, cluster or area sampling.

A simple random probability sampling is a sampling method that gives every single element in the population an equal chance of being included in the selected sample. The selected elements from the population are chosen, based on generated random numbers. This sampling technique is often employed in a small, rather than a large sample frame because it is easy to calculate. Secondly, a systematic sampling on its part is one in which

the target population is listed serially, and the selection of the first element is made randomly after which subsequent selections of elements from the population are made based on fixed interval (n^{th} element) until the required amount of sample size is attained. This n^{th} element is obtained by dividing the total population by the required sample size.

Consequently, in a stratified sampling, the target population is first separated into mutually exclusive, homogeneous segment called strata and thereafter, a simple random sampling method is applied by choosing from each segment (stratum), after which the selected samples are combined together to form into a single sample. This sampling method gives room for adequate representation of different groups of interest. The last of probability sampling procedure is cluster or area sampling technique, where the target population is divided into areas or clusters, from which the required sample is drawn (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013).

According to Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill (2009), an area or cluster sampling is that which divides target population into discrete groups based on certain number of attributes before sampling is conducted. Whereas, in a stratified sampling, elements of the target population are selected randomly from each stratum, in a cluster sampling, elements are selected in their naturally occurring clusters (Kumar, Talib & Ramayah, 2013; Sekaran & Bougie, 2013, Zikmund et al., 2013).

The non-probability sampling technique on the other hand, is a sampling procedure where the chance of selecting a subject as sample from the population is already predetermined (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). This sampling technique can further be

subdivided into quota sampling, accidental (convenience) sampling, judgmental sampling, and snowball sampling.

A quota sampling is that in which all groups are effectively represented in a study by assigning quota based on some identified features of the population. However, in the accidental or convenience sampling, the required information is collected from members of the population who possessed such information and are ready to share it, while in a judgmental or purposive sampling, subjects or elements of the sample are selected on the basis of their ability to provide the required information (Kumar et al., 2013; Sekaran & Bougie, 2013).

Lastly, a snowball sampling is where, in the course of the research, a participant helps the researcher to identify other potential subjects. It is a sampling technique where a subject provides a researcher with the name of another subject who also in turns provides the name of another subject, and so it continues (Vogt & Johnson, 2011).

From the foregoing discussion on different sampling techniques, a cluster sampling technique has been deemed appropriate for this study. This is because it involves dividing the target population into four clusters, representing the four selected states in the study area. This division is in line with previous studies where the target population was divided on the basis of the location of the company (Fornoni, Arribas, & Vila, 2012; Zhang & Zhang, 2012). Each of this cluster is then apportioned a sample in relation to the size of its population. The required sample size is then randomly selected from each cluster with respect to their proportion.

Drawing on the sampling frame provided by SMEDAN on women micro-entrepreneurs in the chosen geo-political zone, questionnaires were administered on the four selected states (clusters) in their rightful proportions. In achieving this, sample drawn from each of the clusters were selected using a random number that were generated from MS Excel 2010 (RAND). This procedure is consistent with that of Saunders et al. (2009).

4.6 Sample Size and Power Analysis

One of the critical stages in a survey research is the determination of the appropriate sample size required from a given population (Barlett, Kotrlik, & Higgins, 2001). A sample simply refers to a subset of an entire population (Kumar, et al., 2013; Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). According to Creswell (2012), sample refers to a subgroup of the targeted population, which the researcher intends to study. In summary, a sample is like a segment of a total, which is chosen to represent the whole.

Although, the need for a sample in a study is essential because it is practically impossible to study an entire population. However, studies have shown that using sample instead of the entire population produces better and reliable results, reduces the rate of fatigue, and helps minimize the error of data collection (Sekaran & Bougie 2013). Thus, a sample refers to a portion drawn from the entire population for the purpose of generalization of the research findings.

In determining an appropriate sample size required for a survey research, Ticehurst and Veal (1999) suggest the use of statistical methods. One of the most prominent statistical methods that is often employed in determining the sample size from a population is the statistical power. A statistical power can be seen as the probability of rejecting a null

hypothesis when the alternative hypothesis is found to be true (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007; Cohen, 1992, 1988). Researchers are generally of the view that the larger the size of the sample, the bigger the power of statistical power (Snijders, 2005; Kelley & Maxwell, 2003; Borenstein, Rothstein, & Cohen, 2001).

A statistical power analysis is a statistical procedure used for determining the appropriate minimum sample size required for a study, with respect to the number of the predicting constructs or variables. Thus, to determine the minimum sample size required for this study, considering the number of the predicting variables, an *a priori* power analysis was conducted using the G*Power 3.0.10 software application (Faul, et al., 2009). The *a priori* analysis was based on these parameters: Power ($1-\beta$ err prob; 0.95), an alpha significance level (α err prob; 0.05), medium effect size f^2 (0.15), the number of the tested predictors are five based on the research framework. From the outcome of the analysis, as shown in the Figure 4.1 below, a minimum of 138 samples is required to test model of this study.

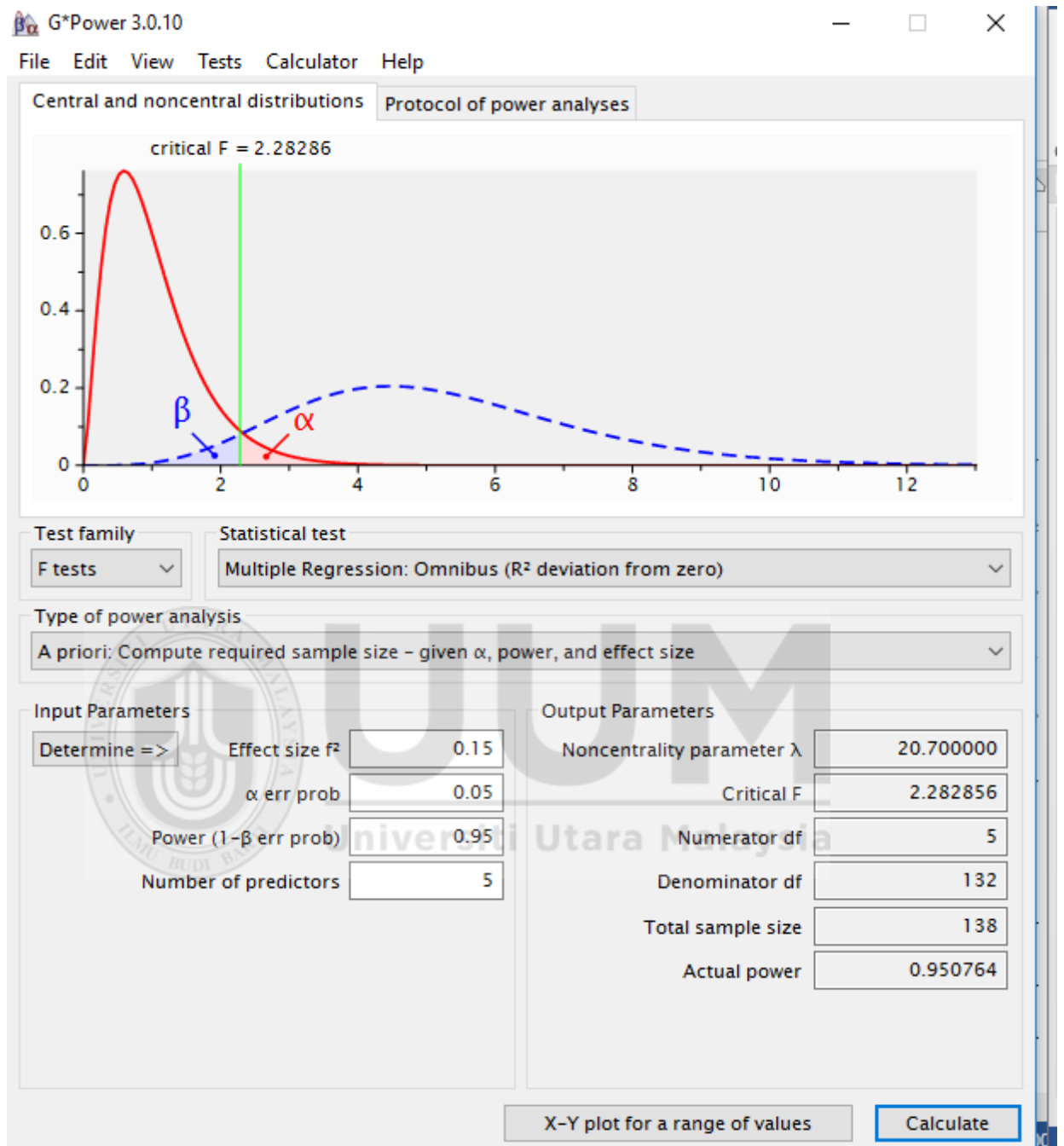


Figure 4.1
 Result of the *a priori* Power Analysis
 Source: G*Power 3.0.10

The essence of power analysis is to determine the minimum sample size that is required for a study based on the number of its predictors. Thus, a sample size obtained through the *a priori* power analysis, which is based on number of predictor variables in the study, and independent of the population, seems to be inadequate for this study, considering the number of women micro entrepreneurs in northwestern Nigeria, which forms the focus of this present study. In view of this, there is therefore the need to explore other alternative means of determining an accurate sample size that would be representative of the chosen population for this study. In line with this contention, this study applied the Dillman's (2011) formula for determining an appropriate sample size from a given population. The formula is given as:

$$N_s = \frac{(N_p)(p)(1-p)}{(N_p - 1)(B/C)^2 + (p)(1-p)}$$

Where:

N_s = computed sample needed for the desired level of precision

N_p = population size

P = the proportion of population

B = acceptable level of sampling error, or precision

C = confidence level

From the above formula, the acceptable level of sampling error $-B$ is set at ± 0.1 (10%), 0.05 (5%), or 0.03(3%) of the actual size of the population, while confidence level $-C$ or the Z statistics, is at 1.96, and expected proportion of population $-p$ is at 0.5. Thus, for a homogenous population of this nature, a chance of 50/50 participation in a survey by

respondent is assumed to be more justifiable than 80/20 (Dillman, 2011). Hence, our sampling error is set at 0.05(5%), instead of at 0.03(3%), in order to have a larger sample size, while the Z-statistics is set at 1.96, corresponding to 95% level of confidence, and population proportion at 0.5.

Given that: $Np = 2,584,607$, $p = 0.5$, $B = .05$, $C = 1.96$.

$$N_s = \frac{(Np)(p)(1-p)}{(Np-1)(B/C)^2 + (p)(1-p)}$$

Substituting the above into this formula, we have:

$$\frac{(2,584,607)(0.5)(1-0.5)}{(2,584,607-1)\left(\frac{0.05}{1.96}\right)^2 + (0.5)(1-0.5)}$$

$$\frac{(2,584,607)(0.5)(0.5)}{(2,584,607)(0.000650770512) + (0.5)(0.5)}$$

$$\frac{646151.75}{1681.986 + 0.25}$$

$$\frac{646151.75}{1682.236}$$

$$384.1$$

The result of the above calculation for determining an appropriate sample size using the Dillman's (2011) formula yields 384 respondents. This figure tallied with the outcome of sample size determination, using the Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table of sample size determination. From this table, the required sample size for any population that equals or exceeds 1,000,000 is 384.

Thus, the Krejcie and Morgans (1970) criteria for sample size determination was additionally employed, along with that of Dillman (2011), in determining the adequate sample size required for this study because, the Krejcie and Morgans (1970) sampling criteria incorporates confidence level and precision in its sample size determination as a way ensuring a minimum sampling error.

From the SMEDAN (2014) annual survey report, the total population of women entrepreneurs in the northwest geo-political zone is 43.32 percent of the entire population of micro-entrepreneurs operating in the zone. Given the total population of registered micro-entrepreneurs in the zone as 5,966,313, therefore, 43.32 percent of this population gives us 2,584,607, which represents the total number of registered women micro-entrepreneurs in the zone. Hence, from a total of seven states that make up the zone, four out of these states comprising, Kebbi, Katsina, Sokoto, and Zamfara were selected for the purpose of the study. The population of women micro entrepreneurs operating in these selected states amount to 1,443,065 (see Table, 4.1). However, the choice of selecting these four states was informed by the fact that they are all in a similar stage of economic advancement.

However, given the homogenous nature of the population of the respondents in the study area, specifically in terms of gender, historical antecedents, cultural uniformity, and ethnic affinity (Abimbola, Moses, & Ahmadu, 2007), a cluster sampling technique was deemed appropriate. From these group of clusters, a simple random sampling technique was employed in selecting the required number of sample size from the entire population.

On the whole, the Dillman's (2011) formula for sample size determination along with the Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) table of sample size determination of sample were used to determine the number of women micro entrepreneurs that would be adequate for the study. However, in order to minimize sampling error, and provide for cases of non-responses or loss of questionnaires, some researchers have suggested that sampling size be multiplied by two (Hair, Wolfinbarger, & Ortinall, 2008), or be increased by 40-50 percent (Salkind, 1997).

In line with the above suggestions of by some researchers, this study goes for the former option of Hair et al. (2008), by doubling the original sample size of 384. In a nutshell, the sample size for this study was guided by results obtained from Dillman (2011), Krejcie and Morgan (1970), and that of Hair et al. (2008), in order to correct for possible cases of non-responses or loss of questionnaires. The researcher's choice of these three scholars is consistent with the opinion of Alreck and Settle (1995), who argued that higher sample size gives more accurate results than lower sample size and, by the suggestion of Asika (1991), who reported that in survey research, the response rate in developing countries, and specifically, in the Nigeria context, is very poor.

However, from the above discussion, doubling the actual sample size of 384, gives 768 respondents. Hence, 768 questionnaires were therefore, administered on women micro entrepreneurs, who are the owner/managers of their businesses in the chosen states of the study. These questionnaires were administered relatively, in relation to the proportion of total numbers of women micro-entrepreneurs that were present in each state. The sample size for each state were obtained by dividing the total number of women entrepreneurs in

each state by the grand total of all the four state, and then multiply the outcome by the required sample size (e.g., $527,033/1,443,065 \times 384 = 140$).

Table 4.1

Sample Frame of Women Micro-enterpreneurs

States	Women Micro-Enterprises by State	Sample size/state
Katsina	527,033	140
Kebbi	299,820	80
Sokoto	303,286	80
Zamfara	312,926	84
Total	1,443,065	384

Source: Annual Report, (SMEDAN, 2013a)

4.7 Unit of Analysis

This refers to the subject of the study in a given research. However, most researches in social sciences often focused on three distinct unit of analysis (i.e., organisations, groups and individuals) (Creswell, 2012; Kumar, et al., 2013). However, in this present study, the unit of analysis is the individual business owners, and the respondents are the women who are the owner/managers of their respective micro-enterprises. Moreover, there are evidences in extant literature on studies of micro, small and medium enterprises, where individual business owners constitute the unit of analysis (see Krauss et al., 2005; Korunka et al., 2003; Koop et al., 2000).

4.8 Operationalization of the Research Variables

Variables are non-figurative concept that have no meaning until they have been operationally defined (Cavana, et al., 2001). Hence, operationalization has to do with the ways of reducing the research variables to observable and measurable constructs (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). Saunders et al. (2009) view it as the translation of concepts into real indicators. In essence, variable operationalization refers to how the variables

used to represent the constructs in a given research have been conceptualized and measured (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). It is a description of how a researcher defines the constructs in his/her study, which are only peculiar to such a study (Creswell, 2012). This subsection of the research, therefore, discusses on how the four variables used in this study were operationalised and measured.

There is no gainsaying that this study adapts its measurement instruments from the works of previous researchers, which are of relevance to the present study (Churchill, 1979). Hence, the research framework consists of four constructs, namely, entrepreneurial competencies, entrepreneurial orientation, culture, and women entrepreneurs' business success. A 5-point Likert scale, to which every respondent is expected to indicate her choice of response to the question being asked, was adopted for the study.

However, for the purpose of simplicity, entrepreneurs/respondents were requested to make a self-rating of the items in the questionnaire as it applies to them individually. The use of this self-rating method to elicit information from the respondents have been found useful in several instances. Specifically, it has been found useful in several situations, for instance, where a structured-rating instrument is used (e.g., questionnaire), or where the instrument is meant to serve as a self-development tool, or where the rating tool is used to serve as discriminant across skills or performance dimensions (Tsui & Ohlott 1988; Henderson 1984; Heneman, 1974). However, to simplify these responses, a five-point rating scale format was adopted for all the constructs (Rahman et al., 2015; Krauss et al., 2005; Lerner & Almor, 2002; Chen, Green & Crick, 1998).

As a corollary to the above submissions on the choice of scale adopted, a study by Frary (1996) has shown that the use of too many scales requires more efforts and time to complete, and this may at times; confused the respondents owing to the seemingly negligible differences that often exist between one response level and the other. This, in essence, justifies the appropriateness of a five-point Likert scale that was adopted in this study as it serves to stimulate the respondents toward a reliable direction (Frary, 1996). The five-points Likert rating scale is represented as (1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neither agree or disagree (i.e., Neutral); 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly agree).

On the whole, it would be of interest to note that, with the exception of the dependent variable (i.e., women entrepreneurs' business success), all other constructs used in the study were modelled as a higher (second) order construct, with a reflective-formative measurement. The justification for a higher order construct in this study is to enable the researcher to ascertain the contributions of every dimension to the composite construct (Rowe, 2002), and to also, serve as a way of reducing the complexity of the model for the purpose of achieving a theoretical parsimony (Hair et al., 2014; Becker et al., 2012).

4.8.1 Women Entrepreneurs' Business Success

The first operationalized variable of this study is the entrepreneur's business success. This represents the dependent variable in the research model. Entrepreneur's business success is a construct with a dual measurement, as it can be measured using two indicators. Firstly, it can be measured using the traditional economic (financial) measure, which is objectively determined, and, based on quantitative records of the firm, and secondly, through the non-financial measure, which is seen as subjective in nature.

However, due to non-availability of data at the micro, small and medium enterprises level of business operation, data on either the financial or the non-financial measure of performance are obtained through the perceptual assessment of the entrepreneurs. The use of a self-reported data has been widely acknowledged in field of entrepreneurship literature (Krauss et al., 2005). Moreover, extant literatures have acknowledged that, at the SMEs business level, both the quantitatively determined and the self-reported data are reliable measures of assessing the entrepreneur's business success since the outcome of these two methods are not significantly different (Rauch et al., 2009).

However, with individual women entrepreneurs constituting the unit of analysis of this study, the focus is on the non-financial measure business success, which is subjectively determine. Previous researches have established that, the assessment of business success of women entrepreneurs, at the micro level of business operation is purely based on the intrinsic goals of being independent, satisfaction, and on the flexibility of the interface between work and family responsibilities (Rani & Hashim, 2017; Alstete, 2008; Walker & Brown, 2004; Brush & Hisrich, 2000). On this note, this study operationalized women entrepreneur's business success, especially at the micro business level of operation, as the ability of the entrepreneur to survive and sustain the business (Lussier & Pfeifer, 2001).

Furthermore, five of the items measuring these intrinsic goals, which translates into the non-financial measure of business success were adapted from Ahmad et al., (2011b), while six of similar items were adapted from Walker and Brown (2004), both of them have a Cronbach's alpha of 0.70. The measures were based on a self-reported rating of items on a five-point Likert scale, which ranged from 1 –"Unsuccessful" to 5 –"Extremely

successful”, as used by Zhu and Chu (2010). These items and their sources are shown in table 4.2 below.

Table 4.2
Measures Entrepreneurs Business Success

Construct	No.	Items Measuring Non-financial success	Source
Non-Financial Success			Ahmad et al. (2011b)
	1	I derive personal satisfaction in what I am doing	
	2	I am able to control my business	
	3	I am able to balance work and family interface	
	4	I have satisfied customers	
	5	I feel I am running a successful business	
		My personal satisfaction is more of importance than making	Walker & Brown (2004)
	6	lots of money	
		Having pride in my job is more of important than making	
	7	lots of money	
	8	I am as ambitious now as when I first start the business	
	9	Given job to people gives me great personal satisfaction	
		Having a flexible lifestyle is more important than making	
	10	lots of money	
	11	Being my own boss gives more personal satisfaction	

Source: Adapted from Ahmad et al. (2011b), Walker & Brown (2004).

4.8.2 Entrepreneurial competencies

The first independent variable used in this study is the entrepreneurial competencies. This variable was operationalized based on the works of Man and Lau (2005) and Man et al., (2008), as comprising six dimensions (i.e., strategy, conceptual, commitment, organizing, relationship, and opportunity) as adapted by Ahmad et al. (2010). Entrepreneurial competencies have been defined as the underlying characteristics, comprising generic or specific knowledge, motives, self-image, social roles, traits, and skills, which result in venture birth, survival, and/or growth (Bird, 1995). As identified by Man et al. (2002), entrepreneurial competencies are higher-level individual characteristic that encompass

personality traits, knowledge, and skills, which are seen as the total personal ability of the entrepreneur to perform specific job role successfully.

In line with the principle of molar modeling, structure (Chin & Gopal, 1995) of the hierarchical latent constructs (Becker et al., 2012), these six dimensions of entrepreneurial competencies were modelled as reflective first-order sub-construct of a composite second-order formative construct. This higher-order modeling structure is similar to study on entrepreneurial competencies and business success (see, Rahman et al., 2015; Ahmad, 2010). The 39 items of the first-order were based on the works of Man (2005, Ahmad, et al., 2010) and have been adapted by scholars (Rahman et al., 2015; Mitchelmore & Rowley 2013; Ahmad, et al., 2010).

Additionally, the manifest items of the first-order latent construct of the higher-order construct, have been validated and found to be psychometrically sound in measuring entrepreneurial competencies (Man, 2005; Ahmad, et al., 2010). All the items were evaluated on a five-point rating Likert scale, which ranged from 1 = Strongly disagree to 5 = Strongly agree and having a Cronbachs alpha of 0.70. These items and their source is shown in table 4.3 below.

Table 4.3
Measure of Entrepreneurial Competencies

Construct	Dimensions	No	Items measuring entrepreneurial competencies	Source
Entrepreneurial Competencies	Strategic	ESTG1	I determine long term issues, problems or opportunities	Man & Lau (2005), Ahmad et al. (2010)
		ESTG2	I am aware of the projected directions of the industry and how changes might impact on the firm	
		ESTG3	I prioritize work in alignment with business goals	



	ESTG4	I redesign my business to better meet long term objectives and changes
	ESTG5	I align current actions with strategic goals
	ESTG6	I assess and link short-term, day-to-day tasks in the context of long-term direction
	ESTG7	I monitor progress towards strategic goals
	ESTG8	I evaluate results against strategic goals
	ESTG9	I determine strategic actions by weighing costs and benefits
Commitment	ECMT1	I dedicate to make business work
	ECMT2	I refuse to let the business fail
	ECMT3	I have an extremely strong internal drive
	ECMT4	I am committed to long term business goals
conceptual	ECPT1	I take reasonable job-related risks
	ECPT2	I monitor progress towards objectives in risky actions
	ECPT3	I look at old problems in new ways
	ECPT4	I explore ideas
	ECPT5	I treat new problems as opportunities
	ECPT6	I understand the broader implications of issues and observations
	ECPT7	I am able to translate ideas and observations into the business context
Opportunity	EOPT1	I identify good and services which based on customers want
	EOPT2	I can perceive the unmet customer needs
	EOPT3	I actively look for products or services that provide real benefit to customers
	EOPT4	I try to grab high-quality business opportunities
Organising	EORG1	I plan the operations of the business
	EORG2	I plan the organisation of different resources
	EORG3	I keep the organisation running smoothly
	EORG4	I organise resources
	EORG5	I coordinate tasks
	EORG6	I supervise subordinates
	EORG7	I organise people
	EORG8	I lead subordinates
	EORG9	I motivate people
	EORG10	I delegate effectively
Relationship	ERLT1	I develop long-term trusting relationships with others
	ERLP2	I negotiate with others
	ERLP3	I interact with others
	ERLP4	I maintain personal network of work contacts
	ERLP5	I communicate with others effectively

Source: Adapted from Man & Lau (2010), Ahmad et al. (2010)

4.8.3 Entrepreneurial Orientation

This is the second independent variable that was used in this study. Entrepreneurial Orientation (EO), as used in this study, was originally based on the earlier works on EO (see Lumpkin & Dess, 1996; Covin & Slevin, 1989; Miller, 1983), which was conceptualized as an organization-level entrepreneurial behavior. However, using the scale of the firm-level EO construct to measure the individual entrepreneurial orientation (IEO) was found inappropriate. Hence, the Covin and Slevin (1989) EO scale, which was later modified and adapted to the individual-level of entrepreneurial orientation (IEO) (see Bolton & Lane, 2012; Bolton, 2012; Miller, 2011; Kollmann et al., 2007) was adapted for this study.

The IEO is conceptualised as a psychological concept, which was operationally defined as an individual level strategic behavior. At the micro, small or in entrepreneurially founded organization, EO was operationally defined as the entrepreneurs' willingness to take risks, innovates, and be proactive towards leading an organization (Bolton, 2012). This concept was conceptualised as a co-varying, unidimensional composite construct (Bolton, 2012; Bolton & Lane, 2012; Rowe, 2002; Covin & Slevin, 1989).

Consistent with the principle of molar modeling structure (see, Chin & Gopal, 1995) of hierarchical latent variables (Becker, et al., 2012), this study aims at reducing the model's complexity towards achieving a theoretical parsimony (Hair et al., 2014; Becker, et al., 2012). Hence, the 10-item of the three dimensions (i.e., proactiveness, risk taking and innovativeness), were modelled as a reflective first-order of the composite second-order formative latent construct (see, George, & Marino, 2011; George, 2011; Wang, 2008).

Consequently, the 10 manifest items of the first-order were based on the works of Bolton and Lane (2012), and have been adapted by scholars (i.e., Jelenc & Pisapia 2015; Bolton, 2012). Thus, these items of the first-order construct of the higher-order construct have been validated and were found to be psychometrically sound in measuring entrepreneurial orientation at the individual level of analysis with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.765 (see Bolton & Lane, 2012).

Consistently, the 10 adapted items of the individual entrepreneurial orientation (IEO) construct (Bolton, 2012), were then modelled and measured as a reflective-formative higher-order construct in line with the study of Brettel and Rottenberger (2013) and were rated on a five-point Likert scale rating, which ranged from 1 –strongly disagree” to 5 –Strongly agree”. These items and their source are shown in the Table 4.4 shown below.



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Table 4.4

Measures of Individual Entrepreneurial Orientation

Construct	Dimensions	No	Items measuring entrepreneurial orientation	Source
Entrepreneurial Orientation	Risk taking	EORT1	I like to take bold action by venturing into the unknown	Bolton and Lane (2012)
		EORT2	I am willing to invest a lot of time and/or money on something that might yield high return	
		EORT3	I tend to act "boldly" in situation where risk is involved	
	Innovative	EOIN1	I often like to try new and unusual activities that are not typical but not necessarily risky	
		EOIN2	In general, I prefer a strong emphasis in on unique, one-of-a kind approach, rather than revisiting tried and true approaches used before	
		EOIN3	I prefer to try my own unique way when learning new things rather than doing it like everyone does	
		EOIN4	I favour experimentation and original approaches to problem solving rather than using methods others generally use for solving their problems	
	Pro-activeness	EOPR1	I usually act in anticipation of future problems, needs, or changes	
		EOPR2	I tend to plan ahead on projects	
		EOPR3	I prefer to 'step-up' and get things going on project rather sit and wait for someone else to do it.	

Source: Adapted from Bolton and Lane (2012)

4.8.4 Culture

Culture, as used in this present study, was originally based on the seminal works of Hofstede (1980) on national culture, which was characterised with four dimensions (i.e., Collectivism/individualism, masculinity/femininity, uncertainty avoidance and power distance). However, this national culture was subsequently, modified and adapted to individual level of analysis (see Dorfman & Howell, 1988). Hence, this study conceptualized culture as the ways individual entrepreneurs become oriented to the national culture in which they are part of (Dorfman & Howell, 1988; Karahanna, Evaristo, & Srite, 2005).

Culture is operationalized as the sum total of shared learned beliefs, norms, customs and values which individuals acquired through the process of long-term interactions with their fellow community members, society, and the environment, and which then guide individuals' and groups behavior in the society (Azam, 2015). Consequently, this study operationalised culture at the individual level of analysis, to be a reflection of values and practices, exemplified by the entrepreneurs in their respective businesses (Frese, 2006). These cultural values and practices have been found to be relevant in broadening our understandings of entrepreneurial behavior, as it correlates with entrepreneur's actions (Frese, 2006).

Consistent with the principle of molar modeling structure (see Chin & Gopal, 1995) for the modeling of hierarchical latent constructs (Becker, et al., 2012), all the items of the four dimensions of culture were modelled as reflective first-order construct of the composite second-order formative construct (i.e., Culture). Thus, the 22 adapted items of individual cultural value scale (CVSCALE), were originally based on the works Dorfman and Howell (1988), and has been adapted by scholars (Azam, 2015; Nazarian & Atkinson, 2005; McCoy et al., 2005).

Furthermore, the manifest items of the first-order latent construct of the higher-order construct, have been validated and they were found to be psychometrically sound in measuring culture at the individual level (Dorfman & Howell, 1988). This modeling of culture as a reflective-formative higher order construct was consistent with previous studies (e/g., Wahjudi et al., 2016; Azam, 2015). All the adapted items were evaluated on a five-point rating Likert scale of 1 –Strongly disagree” to 5 –Strongly agree” and having

a reported Cronbachs alpha of 0.70. These items and their source is shown in Table 4.5 below.

Table 4.5

Measures of Culture

Construct	Dimensions	No	Items measuring individual culture	Source
Culture	Individualism/ Collectivism	CIC1	The welfare of my group welfare is more Important than my personal rewards	Dorfman & Howell (1988)
		CIC2	The success of my work group is more important than my personal success	
		CIC3	Being accepted by my group by members of my work group is very important	
		CIC4	Owners should encourage work group loyalty even if individual goals suffer	
		CIC5	Owners should give up their goals in order to benefit their work group	
		CIC6	Employees should only pursue their goals after considering the welfare of their work group.	
	Uncertainty Avoidance	CUA1	Owners expects employees to closely follow instructions and procedures	
		CUA2	Owners expect employees to closely follow instructions and procedures	
		CUA3	It is good to have rules and regulations because they will guide employees on what to do	
		CUA4	Standard operating procedure help employees on the job	
		CUA5	It is important to spel out job requirements and instructions in detail so that, employees will know what they are expected to do	
	Masculinity/ Femininity	CMF1	Meetings are usually more coordinated when they are chaired by men	
		CMF2	It is more important for men to have a professional career than it is for women	
		CMF3	Men usually solve their problems using logical analysis, and women solves problems with intuition	
		CMF4	An active forcible approach, which is typical of men, is usually required to solve organizational problems.	
		CMF5	It is more preferable to have a man in a high level position in organization rather than having a woman	
	Power Distance	CPD1	Owners should make most decisions without consulting their employees.	
		CPD2	It is necessary for owners to use authority and power when dealing with their employees.	
		CPD3	Owners should avoid seeking opinion from their employees.	
		CPD4	Owners should avoid off-the-job social contact	

with their employees.

- CPD5 Employees should not disagree with the management decisions.
- CPD6 Owners should not delegate important task to their employees.

Source: Adapted from Dorfman & Howell (1988)

4.9 Summary of Constructs Measurements

The four major formative constructs of the model, comprising 14 first-order reflective constructs measured by 83 indicators, were adapted from previous studies. These four constructs have been respectively, validated as being psychometrically sound to measure each of the construct, which they have been used for in the model with the Cronbach's alpha value of above 0.70. In addition to this, all the 83 items were measured on a 5-point Likert. A 5-point rating Likert scale was chosen because it guarantees an improved reliability of rating (Elmore & Beggs, 1975) and yields better results (Neuman & Robson, 2008).

The Table 4.6 shown below depicts all the constructs being modelled as higher-order construct with the exception of dependent variable, which was modeled as a unidimensional construct. This modeling structure was done in order to reduce the complexity of the model and achieve a theoretical parsimony.

Table 4.6

Operationalisation of research variables

Constructs	Nature of Construct	First-order	No. of Items	Sources of Adaptation
Entrepreneurs business Success	Unidimensional	1	11	Ahmad et al. (2012), & Walker & Brown (2004)
Entrepreneurial Competencies	HOC	6	39	Man (2005) & Ahmad et al. (2010)
Entrepreneurial Orientation	HOC	3	10	Bolton & Lane (2012)
Culture	HOC	4	22	Dorfman & Howell (1988)

Note: Higher Order Construct (HOC)

4.10 Questionnaire Design

In this study, a closed-ended structured questionnaire that is rated on five-point rating scale was used for the questionnaire survey. Although, several studies in extant literatures have adopted four, five, six, seven and even, a nine points Likerts interval scale. However, a five-point Likert scale was used in this present study. The choice of a 5-point Likert's rating scale derives from the fact that, firstly, a scale with mid-point is seen to present a better and accurate result (Krosnic & Fabrigar, 1997), by allowing the respondents to conveniently show their position precisely, regarding their choice of an item.

Secondly, it has been revealed in a study by Frary (1996), that the use of too many scales requires more efforts and time, and this often times, may even confuse the respondents due to the seemingly negligible differences that exist between the response level intervals. Therefore, a five-point rating scale, as opposed to that of seven or nine, is seen to guarantee an improved reliability in the rating (Elmore & Beggs, 1975). This choice is consistent with the assertion of Neuman and Robson (2008), who posit that a five-point rating scale is the ideal, as this guarantees better results. Evidences of studies where a five-point rating scale have been used can be found in the works (Awang, Ismail & Mansor, 2014; Ghorbani, Branch, & Dimneh, 2012; Wang & Yen, 2012) and so on.

Additionally, all the adapted instruments used in measuring the constructs of this study were originally written in English language. However, for the purpose of achieving a wider distribution, a back-translation (Brislin, 1980) was employed to re-produce an accurate Hausa version of the instrument, being the language mostly understood by majority of the respondents in the study area.

However, this process of back-translation (Brislin, 1980), was achieved through the service of Hausa bilingual academics and language interpreters. The refined Hausa version of the questionnaire was further reviewed along with that of English questionnaire by yet another set of Hausa academics and interpreters to verify the accuracy of the translated Hausa version of the questionnaire. Thereafter, the final version of the Hausa questionnaire was then re-translated back into English. These back-translation exercises were done to check if the items in the translated Hausa version actually project similar meanings with that of the original English version.

However, in the final analysis, it is of interest to note that both versions of the questionnaires were found to project similar meaning, which signifies equivalence in meaning of the two questionnaires. This method of back-translation have been adjudged to be the most comprehensive procedure of making translation (Marin & Marin, 1991). A similar form of back-translation of questionnaire can also be found in the study of Azam (2015), where the originally designed English questionnaires were back-translated to Bengal, in order to avail the respondents, the opportunity of completing the questionnaire in their local language.

Conclusively, the designed questionnaires used for purpose of survey were divided into the following sections. Section A consists of items on the demographic information of the respondents. Section B is made up of 11 items measuring the entrepreneurs' business success of the respondents, while section C, constituting 39 items, measures the entrepreneurial competencies of the respondents, with section D, containing 10 items, measuring entrepreneurial orientation level of the respondents, and section E, contains 22

adapted items which measure the respondents culture at the individual level. (See Appendix A & B).

4.11 Methods of Data Collection

This refers to the various ways of obtaining the necessary data or information required for a study (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). However, this information is dependent on the types of study being conducted, be it either a quantitative or a qualitative research (Kumar et al., 2013). In a qualitative research, methods such as interview and observation are mostly in use, while in quantitative research, the use of questionnaire mostly featured.

The interview method of data collection used in qualitative method, explains a situation where the researcher elicits information from the respondents through a face-to-face questioning, or through a telephone conversation. Such interview may be structured, in which case, the researcher has some predesigned questions for the respondents, or it may be an unstructured one, where the questions are not predesigned. Thus, interview method is in most time, employed in an exploratory research, where the researcher requires some in-depth information for a better understanding of a phenomenon. However, this method of data collection is costly and time consuming (Kumar et al., 2013; Sekaran & Bougie, 2013).

The observation method, which follows, has to do with “the planned watching, recording, analysis, and interpretation of behavior, actions, or events” (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013, p.130). It is a method of research, which is carried out in its natural setting, where the researcher may, or may not be involved in the events being observed. This method data collection enables the researcher to gather behavioural data without necessarily asking

questions from the objects that are being studied. Although, this method of research is also time consuming and requires specialized skills, it provides one best form of rich and undiluted source of data collection (Kumar et al., 2013; Sekaran & Bougie, 2013).

The use of questionnaire in data collection is mostly employed in quantitative research for data collection purposes. It refers to a situation where a set of predesigned written questions, with closely defined options, and items recorded, is used to elicit information on certain issues of interest from the respondents by the researchers (Kumar et al., 2013; Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). This questionnaire method of data collection is use in the descriptive studies to gather large amount of quantitative data. Its administration can be done through personal administration (i.e., self-administered), by post, or by electronic means, or can even be sent directly to the respondents. In comparison to the two methods of data collection discussed above, questionnaire method is both time saving and cost effective (Kumar et al., 2013; Sekaran & Bougie, 2013), but it sometimes, suffers from low response rate from the respondents.

From the foregoing analysis, this study employs the use of questionnaire to gather the required data that are necessary for analysis from the respondents, through a self-administered questionnaire process, by engaging the services of two familiar female enumerators. Engaging the services of these female research enumerators become necessary in this study because of the area of the study (i.e., northwest), which is part of the wider northern region, where the Shari'a form of legal system have held sway. Hence, women in this part of the country are religiously reserved and cultural averse to interaction with other members of the opposite gender who are not member of their kin, due to their religious beliefs and cultural practices.

Although, the existing Shari'a law being practice in most of these states gives women full and independent rights over the management of their businesses and finances. However, they are still considered as 'legal minors', whose interaction with members of the public or adult male gender must be mediated through an intermediary, preferably, a male member of their kin (Chamlou, Klapper, & Muzi, 2008). Hence, this religious/cultural constraint, makes the services of female research enumerators, which were employed in this study, an imperative because the researcher is of the opposite gender. These female research enumerators now assumed the role of the entrepreneur's male relatives, through whom the researcher interacts with the respondents.

4.12 Data Collection Procedure

The essence of sampling is to be able to reach out to the respondents, which are, in the case of this study, the women micro-entrepreneurs, who are the founders, owner-managers, and CEOs of their respective businesses. This is because they are not only considered as the key informants in their organization (Kumar, Stern, & Anderson, 1993), but are also, the single most knowledgeable and valid information sources of the business (Lechner, Dowling, & Welpe, 2006, p. 525). Hence, the procedure adopted for collecting data for this research was through a self-administered questionnaire to the respondents. However, efforts were made to engage the services of female research assistants in the administration of the questionnaires for the purpose of easing the processes of data collection and generating more responses from the respondents.

The involvement of female research assistants in this study has become necessary due to some of the following reasons. The target population is purely women entrepreneurs and women always feel free to divulge information about themselves with their co-women

than they would with men. Secondly, it will also afford the respondents the opportunity of asking questions on items that need some clarification in order to minimize the incidence of non-response rates. Thirdly, a self-administered questionnaire always ensures that filled questionnaires were returned promptly, and lastly, the procedure will afford the research assistants the opportunity of persuading the respondents to fully participate in the survey by given their sincere opinions (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013).

4.13 Techniques for Data Analysis

This refers to the procedure and the statistical tools employed by the researcher in analyzing the obtained data from the questionnaires administered. In this study, a combination of both descriptive and inferential statistical tools of analysis were employed in analyzing the data (i.e., responses) obtained from the respondents, through the questionnaire survey. While descriptive statistics of frequencies and percentages were used in analyzing the respondent's demographic characteristics, the inferential statistics of Partial Least Square-Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM) was used for analyzing and testing the postulated hypotheses.

PLS-SEM is a second-generation statistical modelling technique. Its usefulness derives from its ability to determine the cause and effect relationship between latent constructs (Hair et al., 2014). This analytical technique is generally employed in a path modelling statistical analysis for modelling of complex multivariate analysis of relationships between the observed and latent variables (Esposito Vinzi, et al., 2010). PLS-SEM is a flexible, strong and superior statistical tool for theory testing, predicting outcome and for model building (Lowry & Gaskin, 2014; Robins, 2012).

As a path modelling technique, PLS-SEM guarantees the achievement of a reliable and valid confirmatory factor analysis of items of measurement (Wan Afthanorhan, 2013), and as a statistical technique, it has been widely used by researchers in various fields of social sciences, as well as in business researches (Hair Jr. et al., 2014). The wide range usage of this statistical package derives from its ability to assess latent variables and determines the relationship with its items (outer model), as well as in testing the relationships among the latent variables (inner model) (Hair et al., 2012; Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, et al., 2009).

Furthermore, PLS-SEM is a robust statistical technique that widely employed in handling cases of non-normally distributed data due to its flexible assumptions about normality of data distribution (Henseler et al., 2009). In addition to this, under normal condition of a large sample size, PLS-SEM path estimates is capable of detecting variances among groups compared to other covariance-based SEM models (e.g., LISREL) (Marcoulides, Chin, & Saunders, 2009), and it also has the ability of accommodating a smaller sample size.

Furthermore, PLS-SEM statistical modeling have the capability of addressing the problem of statistical power analysis of data within similar conditions than the covariance-based SEM (Haenlein & Kaplan, 2011; Reinartz, Haenlein, & Henseler, 2009). Hence, small sample size, non-normality of data and high predictive ability are some the benefits of PLS-SEM over other forms of statistical techniques of analysis (Sarstedt, Ringle, & Hair, 2014). Finally, this statistical package has proven to be of superior model to other first generation, or covariance-based regressions models, in the performance of estimations involving moderator and mediator.

From the foregoing discussions on the usefulness and importance of PLS_SEM over other forms of statistical tools of analysis, as discussed in the preceding paragraphs this study chooses PLS as its statistical package of analysis, given the complex nature of the model. The application of PLS-SEM statistical technique of analysis in this study has makes it easy for the researcher to predict the relationship between the independent, intervening and dependent variables of the model.

The application of this statistical package, in a complex model of this nature, has made the estimation of the path coefficient relationship between entrepreneurial competencies, entrepreneurial orientation, and women entrepreneurs' success, and the determining of the relationship between culture and entrepreneurial competencies, entrepreneurial orientation, and women entrepreneurs' success an easy task, relative to any other forms of statistical analysis.

Additionally, the robustness of this statistical package in analyzing the variables of higher order constructs (HOC), has makes it easy for the researcher to dispense with the variables and their dimensions in a logical sequential manner. Apart from the dependent variable, all other variables in the study were modeled as a reflective-formative construct of a higher order structure, and PLS-SEM is a proven statistical package for performing such kind of complex operations (Hair Jr., Black, Babin, and Anderson (2010). The use of this statistical package in this study is consistent with suggestion by Hair Jr., et al. (2010), who contend that the most suitable statistical package for analysing complex models involving reflective and formative constructs is the SmartPLS.

4.14 Test of Validity

Prior to the administration of questionnaire as the research instrument, it is always pertinent for a researcher to assess the consistency and accuracy of the instrument to be used for data collection (Hair et al., 2007). This is because, it is believed that, even though a construct's measure is or are obtained from previous studies, there is need for such measure to be tested and validated before it will be used in one's research. To achieve this, a pilot study therefore, becomes necessary for testing the instrument in order to certify the efficacy of the measurement (Hair et al., 2007). In view thereof, the instruments used in this study were firstly, evaluated using SPSS v22 in order to ascertain its validity and reliability by carrying out a pilot study test of the instrument.

4.14.1 Validity of the Construct

An instruments validity talks about its accuracy. Alternatively, the concerns for the validity of an instrument is hinged on the extent at which the instrument, or process and technique adopted in a study, appropriately measured what it actually supposed to measure (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). According to Sekaran and Bougie (2013), instrument validity is an assessment of how well the said instrument measures the construct it intends to measure. Although, Vanderstoep and Johnston (2009) have reported the existence of different types of validity, some of which include the content validity, face validity, predictive validity, statistical validity, internal and external validities, and concurrent validity. The most important of all these validities are content validity and construct validity (Greener, 2008; Huck, 2004).

4.14.2 Content Validity

The content validity of an instrument, usually assessed through its face validity, is based on expert's assessment of the chosen instrument (Green, Tull & Albaum, 1988). This validity test refers to the extent to which the measures/items covers the entire domain of interest (Zikmund et al., 2013). This type of validity is being determined by constituting a small sample of experts or panel of specialists, to make critical review the suitability of the chosen items for measuring a construct (Hair et al., 2007; Sekaran & Bougie, 2013).

In this connection, this study follows the Lawshe's (1975) criterion for assessing content validity. This criterion essentially focused on achieving consensus among the group of raters or panel of experts, on the basis of their individual ratings of each item in the construct against these questions: "Is the skills or knowledge measured by this item", (i) "essential", (ii) "useful but not essential", or (iii) "not necessary". The number of raters that indicate any of this option "essential", "useful but not essential", or "not necessary", for each of the item are then determined. However, it is of interest to note that all the three teams of academicians (see Appendix E) that assessed the items of the questionnaire used in this study indicate "essential", for all the adapted items of the instruments.

4.14.3 Construct Validity

Construct validity is a way of determining the extent at which a measure (i.e., instrument) actually measured what it is intended. Assessing the construct validity of an instrument involves carrying out both the discriminant and convergent validity of the construct. The essence is to determine the extent to which the instrument actually measures what it has been operationalized to measure, in order to authenticate its genuineness. Construct

validity is very important in data analysis (Greener, 2008). To determine the construct validity of this measure, a two-way approach in determining construct validity of item was adopted. This assessment was achieved through discriminant and convergent validity (Hair Jr. et al., 2013; Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009).

Discriminant validity refers to the distinctiveness of a measure. In other words, it refers to the extent to which the measures/indicators of particular construct empirically, defer from the measures/ indicators of another constructs (Duarte & Raposo, 2010). This in essence, goes to affirm that, a construct should not be so highly correlated with other measure of other constructs in a particular model (Zikmund et al., 2013). Establishing a discriminant validity in a model is an indication of the uniqueness of that construct, which implies that, no phenomena captured by that construct can be found in any other constructs, present in that model (Hair et al., 2014). The discriminant validity of a measure is assessed through the Fornell and Larcker criterion and cross-loadings of the items/ndicators (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2014).

The convergent validity of a construct on the other hand, is established when the values obtained from the items measuring same construct, are positively correlated with other items of same construct (Hair et al., 2014; Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). The convergence validity of a construct is established by determining both the outer loadings of the items and the average variance extracted (AVE). Hence, convergent validity of a measure is achieved when, the average variance extracted (AVE) obtained from the outer loadings of the indicators is 0.50 or more (Chin, 1998a). Average variance extracted (AVE) is the total mean values of squared loadings of all items (indicators) that are related to the

construct (i.e., the sum of the squared loadings divided by the number of indicators). In other words, AVE is equivalent to the communality of a construct (Hair et al., 2014).

4.15 Pilot Study

Prior to the administration of the questionnaire as the research instrument in a large-scale survey research, it is pertinent for a researcher to assess the consistency and accuracy of such instrument (Hair et al., 2007). It is in view of this that researchers have opined that, even though a construct's measure or instrument is adapted from previous studies, there is a need for such measure or instrument to be re-tested and validated before its being used in one's own research. It is on this premise that the researcher carried out a pilot study to assess the validity and reliability of all the adapted instruments of the study.

A pilot study often takes the form of a trial survey, or what can otherwise, be called a small-scale research. It often involves a sample data collected from a small portion of respondents, similar to those that will actually, be used in the main study. Pilot study is done prior to the time when the actual full-scale survey of the study will be carried out (Gay, Mills & Airasian, 2006).

However, the main aim of this pilot study is, firstly, to ascertain the reliability (i.e., consistency) of the adapted measurement instrument (Zikmund et al., 2013), and secondly, to give the researcher an insight into the real situation of events before the actual study is carried out (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). Having this fore knowledge about the field survey enables the researcher to correct for any envisaged problems that are likely to come up in the course of the actual survey, when a full-scale study is finally launched.

Although, the most commonly employed measure of internal consistency reliability estimate has been the Cronbach's alpha, its usage in the recent time has become a subject of criticisms, on the account of its assumption that all items of a construct contribute equally to the construct, without given any consideration to the values of individual item's loadings (Götz, Liehr-Gobbers, & Krafft, 2010). Hence, the choice of adopting composite reliability, as a measure for assessing the internal consistency reliability in this present study, lies on its consideration for the variations in the outer loadings of the individual construct's indicators (Hair et al., 2014). This situation provides a true and unbiased measure of the internal consistency reliability of a measure (Hair *et al.*, 2014; Peterson & Kim, 2013).

Consequently, the values of composite reliability ranges between 0 and 1, with the higher values signifying high reliability level. Nevertheless, the value range of between 0.60 and 0.70 are deemed acceptable in exploratory research, while values of 0.70 to 0.90 are being regarded as satisfactory in an advanced stage research (Hair et al., 2014; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). From a sample of 75 questionnaires found useable out of the 100 questionnaires that were randomly administered on the women micro-entrepreneurs in the chosen states from the geopolitical zone, a SmartPLS 3.0 software (Ringle, Wende, & Will, 2005) was employed to determine the internal consistency reliability of the adapted measures by running the path algorithm (Lohmöller, 1989) of the PLS-SEM path modeling (Wold, 1974).

The results of the pilot study presented Table 4.3 below, shows the internal consistency reliability of the adapted measures, using the composite reliability estimator (Hair et al., 2014). The result shown are within the minimum acceptable benchmark, suggested by

Hair et al. (2014), and Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) and as such, no any item of the measure was deleted. This finding suggests that the adapted measure in this present study are highly reliable for measuring the constructs used in the model.

Table 4.7

Summary of pilot study internal consistence reliability test results (n=75)

Constructs	Dimensions	Number of items	Composite Reliability
Business Success	Non-financial success	11	0.82
Entrepreneurial Competencies	Strategic	9	0.67
	Opportunity	4	0.78
	Conceptual	7	0.76
	Commitment	10	0.67
	Relationship	4	0.71
Entrepreneurial orientation	Organising	5	0.86
	Proactiveness	3	0.83
	Risk taking	3	0.73
	Innovativeness	4	0.72
Culture	Collective/Individualism	6	0.75
	Masculine/Femininity	5	0.74
	Power distant	6	0.80
	Uncertainty avoidance	5	0.86

4.16 Reliability of the Constructs

The reliability of an instrument refers to the extent at which a measuring instrument is free from error, inconsistency, and remains stable across time and various items, which are being listed in the scale (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). In other words, an instrument reliability is concerned with the degree at which the adapted items used in a study yields similar result in different situations (Greener, 2008). Reliability test is carried out by assessing internal consistency reliability of the construct.

The two commonly employed inter-item test for assessing the internal consistency reliability of an instrument are the Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α) and composite

reliability (p_c). Unlike Cronbach's alpha, which assumes that all items in a construct makes equal contributions to the main construct, composite reliability takes cognizance of the variations in the outer loadings of each individual item/indicator in the construct into consideration. The choice of composite reliability, as measure of internal consistency in this study derives from the fact that it provides a true and un-bias measure of internal consistency reliability of the items in a construct (Hair et al., 2014; Peterson & Kim, 2013). From the result of the pilot study (see Table 4.7), the minimum range of composite reliability threshold values of 0.6 to 0.7 for exploratory research has been achieved (Hair et al., 2014; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Hence, these values indicate that the items of the constructs measured exactly what they are supposed to measure.

4.17 Summary of the Chapter

In summing up, the focus of this chapter has been on the choice of the research design adopted, and the research paradigm that guides its adoption. It elaborates on the preference for a cross-sectional survey form of research design over other forms of research designs. Consequently, it discussed the population of the study and expatiated on the choice of the sampling techniques adopted in the study, as well as the various techniques used in arriving at an accurate sample size requires for the study. The choice of individual as the unit of analysis of the study have been validated in addition to the operationalization of the individual construct. The chapter further discusses on the questionnaire design and on the researcher's preference for the adoption of a five-point Likert's rating scale. The choice of adopting questionnaire as the instrument of data collection, and the procedures employed in its administration, were clearly elaborated, alongside with the preference for PLS-SEM as the technique of data analysis.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

The main objective of this chapter is to present the results of the findings that were obtained from the analyzed data collected from the respondents in the chosen states covered by the study. This study covers four states: Katsina, Kebbi, Sokoto and Zamfara, in the northwest geo-political zone of the country. This chapter consists of the series of preliminary analysis that were involved in the treatment of the data for further statistical analysis, the analysis of the measurement and structural models, the modeling of constructs at a higher level of abstraction, as well as determining the effects and strength of the moderator.

5.2 Response Rate

The data used for the purpose of analysis in this research were obtained from women micro-entrepreneurs, who are the owner-managers of their respective businesses and are domiciled in the four selected states of the northwest geopolitical zone of the Nigeria. The administered questionnaires, for the purpose of eliciting information from the respondents were self-administered through the assistance of two female research enumerators, who serves as the intermediary between the researcher and the respondents. A self-administered questionnaire process was however, deemed effective in this research because it has helped to increase the level of satisfactory responses obtained from the respondents (Dillman, 1978).

Nevertheless, other efforts were also employed towards increasing the response rates of the respondents. Some of these methods include, sending of reminder notice to the respondents who are yet to return their questionnaires, making a several follow-ups visits by the research and the research assistants (Salant, Dillman, & Don, 1994), by making direct phone calls (Traina, MacLean, Park, & Kahn, 2005), personal visits, as well as SMS text messaging by the researcher (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). All of these efforts at retrieving completed questionnaires did yield a positive result as, 440 out of the 768 distributed questionnaires, were retrieved. This total accounts for 57% of the response rate. Analysis of the distributed questionnaires and its retrieval by the states are depicted in the Table 5.1 shown below.

Table 5.1
Response rate of questionnaires

Responses	Katsina	Kebbi	Sokoto	Zamfara	Freq/Rate
No. of questionnaires distributed	280	160	161	167	768
No. of returned questionnaires	168	97	93	82	440
No. of returned and usable questionnaires	127	78	82	74	361
No. of returned and exclude questionnaires	41	19	11	8	79
Questionnaire not returned	112	63	68	85	328
Response rate%	60%	61%	58%	49%	57%
Useable response rate%	45%	49%	51%	44%	47%

From the Table 5.1 shown above, out of 440 questionnaires that were returned, only 361 were found usable for further analysis. The remaining 79 questionnaires were found unusable due to incomplete information or entering of multiple choices for a single item. Other reasons are due to the inability of the respondents to meet up with the 3 years minimum threshold within which success in business operation can be said to have been achieved (Salman, 2009). On whole, the total responses accounted for 47% of the valid response rates (Baruch, 1999). However, a valid response rate of 47% has therefore, been considered as adequate in this study for further analysis. Moreover, a 30% response, rate

have been considered, as sufficient for a survey (Hair et al., 2010; Sekaran & Bougie, 2013).

5.3 Non-response Bias Test

A common problem in a survey research is that of non-response bias. A non-response bias is defined as “the differences in the answers provided between non-respondents and respondents” (Lambart & Harrington, 1990, p.5). However, a non-response bias exists when participants in a survey greatly differ, in a meaningful way, from the non-participants. Hence, if there exist differences between these two sets of respondents, then the collected data from the survey cannot be generalized because it does not truly represent the population of the study (Cooper & Schindler, 2009; Armstrong & Overton, 1977).

However, due to non-availability of data from non-response subjects, researchers have likened the non-response subjects to late respondents, and then suggest that a comparison be made between the early and late respondents, to analyze the non-response bias (Wang & Lamb, 1983; Armstrong & Overton, 1977). Hence, to test for the existence of non-response bias in a survey data of this nature, the suggestion of Armstrong and Overton (1977) on the use of time-trend extrapolation technique was adopted. A time-trend extrapolation technique involves classifying the survey respondents into two basic groups (i.e. early respondents and late respondents) on the basis of time, when the questionnaires were retrieved by the researchers (Vink & Boomsma, 2008). These two sets of group respondents are then compared to ascertain non-response bias, using an independent t-test. The presence of any significant differences between these groups of respondents

shows the existence of non-response bias (Lin & Schaeffer, 1995; Armstrong & Overton, 1977).

In line with this time-trend extrapolation technique (Armstrong & Overton, 1977), the respondents in this study were divided into two sets of groups and these groups were coded as -1" for the early respondents (i.e., between 2nd September, 2016 to 10th October, 2016), and -2" for late respondents (i.e., after 10th of October, 2016 to 5th December, 2016) respectively. On the basis of these groupings, out of the 361 usable questionnaires retrieved from the respondents, 151 participants, accounting for (42%) responded to the questionnaire within the first month of its distribution (i.e., code 1), while the remaining 210, which represents (58%) responded after the first month (i.e., code 2). An independent t-test was thereafter, conducted on these two sets of data to detect a possible case of non-response bias between the two groups of respondents. The resultant outcome of the independent t-test, using the Levenes test for equality of variance was then used to compare the differences at 0.05 level of significance (Coakes, 2013; Pallant, 2011; Field, 2009).

The Table 5.2 below shows that there is no much variance in responses between the early and late respondents, as there exists no significant differences between the two groups. On this note, it can be concluded that, there is no response bias in this study because the values of the equality of variances for all the variables are greater than the threshold of 0.05 level of significance of the Levene's test for equality as recommended by researchers (Coakes, 2013; Pallant, 2011; Field, 2009). This result confirms that the assumption of equal variance between the early and late respondents was not violated. Thus, for a study that achieved 57% response rate, non-response bias is not considered as

a problem (Lindner & Wingenbach, 2002). It can therefore, be concluded that non-response bias was not an issue of concern in this study.

Table 5.2

Results of Independent-Samples T-test for Non-Response Bias

Variables	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Levenes Test for Equality of Variance	
						F	Sig.
Entrepreneurial success	Early response	151	4.1171	0.54148	0.03918	0.170	0.680
	Late response	210	4.0557	0.52016	0.03989		
Strategy	Early response	151	4.0028	0.51006	0.03691	0.602	0.438
	Late response	210	3.9706	0.53454	0.04100		
Commitment	Early response	151	4.2029	0.64578	0.04673	1.478	0.225
	Late response	210	4.1572	0.68051	0.05219		
Conceptual	Early response	151	4.0918	0.54904	0.03973	1.170	0.280
	Late response	210	4.0173	0.56950	0.04368		
Opportunity	Early response	151	4.1944	0.54760	0.03962	2.328	0.128
	Late response	210	4.1610	0.61350	0.04705		
Organizing	Early response	151	4.2323	0.55285	0.04000	2.731	0.099
	Late response	210	4.1575	0.59934	0.04597		
Relationship	Early response	151	4.2898	0.74266	0.05374	0.841	0.360
	Late response	210	4.1764	0.66594	0.05108		
Risk taking	Early response	151	3.6609	0.77540	0.05611	0.044	0.834
	Late response	210	3.8137	0.74729	0.05731		
Innovativeness	Early response	151	3.8030	0.68991	0.04992	1.330	0.250
	Late response	210	3.8642	0.70617	0.05416		
Proactiveness	Early response	151	4.2163	0.62430	0.04517	0.011	0.916
	Late response	210	4.1400	0.62565	0.04798		
Individualism/Collectivism	Early response	151	2.2841	0.73520	0.05320	0.364	0.547
	Late response	210	2.2695	0.68290	0.05238		
Uncertainty avoidance	Early response	151	1.8136	0.56902	0.04117	7.341	0.457
	Late response	210	1.9193	0.68137	0.05226		
Masculinity/Femininity	Early response	151	2.5716	0.96195	0.06960	0.287	0.593
	Late response	210	2.6102	0.99274	0.07614		
Power Distant	Early response	151	2.7692	0.86575	0.06264	0.633	0.427
	Late response	210	2.8258	0.91227	0.06997		

5.4 Preliminary Analyses and Data Cleaning Tests

The preliminary data cleaning exercises conducted in this study include that of data screening, treatment of missing data, assessment of outliers, testing for normality of the data, testing for multicollinearity, and determining the non-response bias.

5.4.1 Data Screening

A very important step in the conduct of a multivariate analysis research is the data cleaning exercise. This is because the quality of any analyzed data depends, largely, on the aptness of data, and its subsequent conversion into a form suitable for analysis (Kristensen & Eskildsen, 2010). In this regard, data screening exercise has become necessary owing to the fact that the tools and techniques of PLS-SEM analysis cannot function maximally if the data set contains cases of missing values (Schumacker & Lomax, 2012). Therefore, the data used for this study were thoroughly, screened for cases of missing values and outliers.

5.4.2 Analysis of Missing data

The first step in a data cleaning process, which follows after the extraction of various responses entered by the respondents in the questionnaires, is the treatment for missing data (values). Missing data (or values) refers to instances, which often occur where values or items on either, one or more of the variables in the questionnaire are incomplete for analysis purpose (Hair *et al.*, 2010). In other words, missing values are instances, which usually occurs, when respondents failed, purposely or unintentionally, to provide answer or answers to some of the questions being asked in the questionnaire. This which could either, have resulted from the inability of the respondent to understand the questions being asked, or due to lack of willingness to answer the question, or owing some difficulties in answering the questions (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). Whenever a case of missing data is detected in a given data set by a researcher, appropriate steps are usually taken to remedy the situation. This is because, performing analysis with missing data could result in erroneous outcomes (Hair Jr. *et al.*, 2010).

In the treatment of missing data, Hair et al., (2010) have suggested that for a data sample that is sufficient for analysis, any case of over 50% missing data that is detected should be removed from the analysis. Following this suggestion, 79 questionnaires with more than 50% un-responded to, were found to be unusable for further analysis, and were therefore, removed out rightly, from the data set. This brings the total of useable questionnaires to 361.

Although, there exist no acceptable percentage of missing data necessary for making valid statistical inference in a given data set, researchers have unanimously, agreed that a rate of 5% or less is insignificant (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013; Schafer, 1999), Thus, out of 28,718 data points contain in the SPSS dataset in this study, 884 data points were recorded as missing. This number accounted for 3% of the entire data points. However,, this percentage of missing data falls within the acceptable tolerance level of 5% as recommended by (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

In order to replace the missing data found in this study, the mean substitution method, which has been recommended by researchers for a percentage of missing values that is less or equal to 5% of the entire responses (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013; Little & Rubin, 1987), was followed. In line with this recommendation, and having satisfied the above criteria, the missing values found in this data set were replaced using the mean substitution method (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013; Hair et al., 2013), and the result of this is shown in Table 5.3 below.

Table 5.3
Total and Percentage of Missing Values

Variables	Number of Missing Values
Entrepreneurial success	96
Entrepreneurial competencies	389
Entrepreneurial orientation	119
Culture	280
Total	884 out 28,718 data points
Percentages	3.0%

Note: The percentage of missing values were obtained by dividing the number of the random missing values in the entire data set by the total number of data points multiplied by 100.

5.4.3 Assessment of Outliers

Outliers can be defined “as observations or subsets of observations, which appear to be inconsistent with the remainder of the data” (Barnett & Lewis, 1994, p.7). Alternatively, it is “an extreme response to a particular question or extreme responses to all questions” (Hair et al. 2014, p.71). Statistically, outliers are often considered as observations that are far away from the remaining parts of the data (Donald & Maddala, 1993). The presence of outliers in a data set can have a serious distortion on the regression coefficient estimates and this could result in unreliable outcomes (Verardi & Croux, 2008). Therefore, to avoid distortions in the analysis that may emanate due to the presence of outliers in a data set, researchers are enjoined to conduct a thorough check on the data for possible cases of univariate and multivariate outliers (Hodge & Austin, 2004). Hair et al. (2014) have argue that, for metric variables, any observation with standard scores of between 2.5 to 4, for smaller and larger samples respectively, are deemed to be an outlier.

In line with the Hodge and Austin’s (2004) recommendation, a check with SPSS was conducted to detect possible cases of univariate outliers in the data set using the standardized z-score value’s cut-off level of ± 3.29 ($p < 0.001$) as recommended by

Tabachnick and Fidell (2013). Using this standardized z-score values, no single case of univariate outliers was detected in the data set.

Consequently, the data set was again, re-checked for possible case of multivariate outliers. A multivariate outlier defined as “the distance of a case from the centroid of the remaining cases where the centroid is the point created at the intersection of the means of all the variables” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013, p. 74). A detection for possible case of multivariate outliers was conducted using the Mahalanobis distance (D^2). A Mahalanobis distance is a multivariate measure of distance that assigns every observation in a data set a distance in relation to the center by considering their multivariate covariance structure (Filzmoser, Ruiz-Gazen, & Thomas-Agnan, 2014). This technique has been widely used to estimate the extent to which an observation is far from the center of the data because it has the ability to detect those observations that are located far away from the center of the data and gives less influence on variables that are highly interrelated (Filzmoser, et al., 2014).

A Mahalanobis distance check for possible case of multivariate outliers was therefore performed on data set using the SPSS and the result obtained was then compared with that of the Chi-square (X^2) table (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Based on the observed 82 items in the entire measures, the recommended Chi-square threshold is 119.87 ($p = 0.05$). From this analysis, no single case of multivariate outliers was found in the data.

5.4.4 Test of Normality

The concept of normality in the distribution of data is one of the most significant postulates of multivariate analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013; Hair *et al.*, 2010).

Normality of a data refers to the shape of the distributed data for the individual continuous variable and its correspondence to the normal distribution (Hair Jr. *et al*, 2010). Thus, in a normally distributed data, the values of its skewness and kurtosis are always closer to zero.

Although, researchers such as (Wetzels, Odekerken-Schroder, & Van Oppen, 2009; Reinartz, et al., 2009; Cassel, Hackl, & Westlund, 1999) have traditionally assumed that, PLS-SEM gives accurate model estimate, even in cases of extremely non-normality of data, owing to its non-assumption about the normality of data (Hair Jr. *et al.*, 2013, & Henseler *et al.*, 2009).

However, some researchers have argued on the need for the conduct of such a test of normality of data in a multivariate data analysis by researchers. Notable among these researchers are Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle and Mena (2012a), who have argued on the need to carry out normality test on data before proceeding on further analysis. Their argument was based on findings from their studies, which shows that a highly skewed or kurtotic data has the tendency of inflating the standard error of an estimate after it has been bootstrapped (Chernick, 2012). This however, can in turn, result in the underestimation of the statistical significance of the structural path coefficient estimates (Ringle, Sarstedt, & Straub, 2012).

Furthermore, Chernick (2012) argued that in a multivariate analysis, the absence of normality in the distribution of variables could distort their relationship, which can in turn, significantly impact their results. Hence, ~~it~~ is important for researchers to examine

the normality of their data distributions before proceeding to analysis stage” (Hair et al., 2014, p. 55).

It is in this line of arguments by Hair, et al. (2012a) and Chernick (2012), that a test of normality was carried out on the data. In performing this test, both the graphical and statistical methods of normality test were conducted on the data before proceeding with further analysis. Graphically, the test of normality was determined through the histogram and normal probability (Normal P-P plot). These graphs depict the data distribution of each individual variable and their correspondence to the normal distribution (Hair Jr. et al., 2010).

Figure 5.1 below shows how the result of the observed values of scores for every variable is plotted against their expected values from the normal distribution. This indicates that the collected data for the present study follows the normal pattern of distribution as all the bars of the histogram fall within the normal curve. This shows that the normality assumption of data has not been violated in this study. This is because a reasonably straight line is a suggestion of normal distribution (Pallant, 2011).

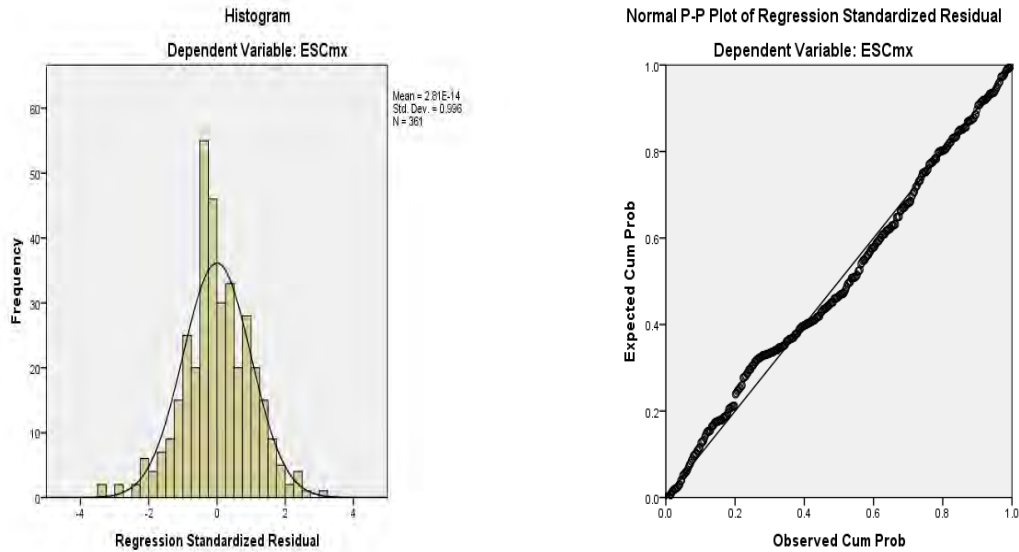


Figure 5.1
Histogram and Normal P-P Plot.

In addition to the graphical method shown above, a statistical test of normality was also conducted by calculating the skewness and kurtosis of the distribution. Curran, West, & Finch (1996) are of the view that the skewness and kurtosis values of a distribution should be less than 2 and 7 respectively. Consistent with this submission, Kline (2011) argued that an absolute value of greater than 3 for skewness and greater than 10 for kurtosis are indications of problem, while a value of above 20 is an indication of a serious problem.

However, Field (2009) contends that in a normality test, the primary concern is the graphical shape of the distribution rather than the values of its skewness and kurtosis. This is because, larger data samples tend to lower the values of the standard errors, and this in turns, can inflate the values of the skewness and kurtosis.

Table 5.4 below shows that the values of the skewness and kurtosis fall within the acceptable threshold of < 2 and < 7 for both the skewness and kurtosis respectively (Curran, West, & Finch, 1996).

Table 5.4
Table showing the skewness and kurtosis of the distribution

Construct	Skewness	Standard Error	Kurtosis	Standard Error
Business success	-1.025	.128	1.657	.256
Entrepreneurial competencies	-1.358	.128	2.191	.256
Entrepreneurial orientation	-.618	.128	.611	.256
Culture	.318	.128	-.510	.256

5.4.5 Multicollinearity

Collinearity is a situation, which often arises, when the values between two indicators of a construct show high level of correlation. However, when this correlation involves more than two constructs, a case of multicollinearity is said to exist among the constructs. In other words, multicollinearity occurs among exogenous latent variables when they are highly correlated (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013; Hair Jr. et al., 2010; Pallant, 2011). The presence of a correlation coefficient of 0.90 and above among independent (exogenous latent) variables, indicate the existence of multicollinearity among the independent variables (Hair Jr. et al., 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The existence of multicollinearity among the exogenous latent variables boosts or increases the size of the standard errors, thereby distorting the regression coefficient estimates, and their statistical significance, which in turns, effects the predictive ability of the construct (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011; Pallant, 2011; Hair Jr. et al., 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

Nevertheless, the problems of multicollinearity among latent exogenous variables can be detected in two ways. One of the ways of achieving this is by examining the correlation matrix of the independent (exogenous latent) variables. An existence of correlation coefficient of 0.90 or above signifies the presence of multicollinearity among the independent (exogenous latent) constructs (Hair Jr. et al., 2010). When multicollinearity is detected among exogenous latent variables, the problem can be resolved by deleting the variables involved. The second method of detecting multicollinearity among variables is by examining the variance inflated factor (VIF), tolerance value and condition index (CI). According to Hair, et al. (2011), multicollinearity exists when the VIF is >5 , the tolerance value is <0.20 and the condition index is >30 .

The Table 5.5 below shows that the correlations among the exogenous latent variables were below the recommended threshold of 0.90, which indicate that the exogenous latent variables of the model were independent and were not highly correlated.

Table 5.5
Correlation Matrix of the exogenous latent Variables

No.	Latent Variables	1	2	3
1	Entrepreneurial competencies	1.000		
2	Entrepreneurial orientation	.233	1.000	
3	Culture	.248	-.584	1.000

In this study, a test of multicollinearity was performed by examining the VIF and the tolerance values of all the predicting (exogenous latent) variables and the results are shown in the Table 5.6 below. The table shows that both the VIF and tolerance value met

the stipulated threshold of (>0.20) and less than (<5) for tolerance value and VIF respectively. This indicates that multicollinearity issue was never a problem in the study.

Table 5.6
Tolerance and Variance Inflated Factor

Latent variables	Collinearity	Statistics
	Tolerance	VIF
Entrepreneurial competencies	.518	1.932
Entrepreneurial orientation	.510	1.960
Culture	.730	1.369

5.5 Common Method Variance Test

The common method variance (CMV) or common method bias, as it is otherwise known refers to the “variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the construct of interest” (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003, p. 879). This method variance has become a major source of concern for most researchers, especially those that uses self-report surveys as a method of data collection (Spector, 2006; Podsakoff, et al., 2003).

However, the major source for concern on this issue derives from the fact that same instrument is being used for obtaining data on both the exogenous and endogenous variables at the same time, and from the same source or respondents. This technique of data collection, has often times, exposes the collected data to potential problem of common method variance, and this variance in turn, have the tendency of inflating the relationship among the variables being measured through a self-report method of data collection procedure (Conway & Lance, 2010). The most commonly employed

techniques in addressing this problem of common method bias in a survey research is a combination of both the procedural and statistical measures (MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012).

The procedural technique of addressing the problem of CMV involves the reverse wording of questions, clarifying the questions for easy comprehension, removal of ambiguous words in the items, and the guaranteeing of the confidentiality of the respondents. All these measures were to be taken into account by the researchers in the course of designing the questionnaires in order to prevent the consequences of erroneous responses from the respondents (MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012; Chang, Van Witteloostuijn, & Eden, 2010).

Statistically, the most widely employed technique of addressing the problem of CMV has been the Harman's one factor test, which was suggested by Podsakoff, et al. (2003). This single-factor test is often carried out to ensure that a single factor does not account for more than 50% of the variance explained in the model. The Harman's test involves simultaneous loadings of all items of the constructs into an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) so as to examine the un-rotated factor analysis, with a view to knowing the number of factors that are necessary in explaining variance in the variables (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Although, the underlying notion of using the technique (CMV) is because, if a substantial level of common method variance is found to exist among the variables, chances are that a single factor may emerged from the factor analysis or that one general factor may have the capability of explaining the whole of the covariance among the

measures (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Nevertheless, while some researchers have opined that the use of a single respondent may be unreliable (see, Bowman & Ambrosini, 1997), others were of the opinion that this issue may not be a problem in certain contexts (see, Zahra and Covin, 1993).

However, owing to the fact that this study is a self-reported survey, which is based on perceptual data, obtained from a single source (i.e., women entrepreneurs), there is a concern for the issue of common method variance (Spector, 2006; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Podsakoff & Todor, 1985), and hence, the need to examine it. To achieve this objective therefore, the two widely used techniques of assessing common method variance (i.e., procedural and statistical) were employed in this study.

Procedurally, the researcher takes into cognizance certain measures in the course of drafting and designing of the questionnaires, so as to reduce the respondents' aversion towards completing the questionnaires. To begin with, all the items in the questionnaire were written in clear, precise and unambiguous wordings, and were then scaled to a five-point rating scale, having provided clear instructions on how the questionnaire is to be completed. Secondly, the confidentiality of the information provided, and anonymity of the informant/respondents were greatly assured, in addition to the avoidance of using some ambiguous concepts that may confuse them.

Consequently, the items were expressed in a simple and concise language and then translated into Hausa, which is the local language understood by most of the respondents, for easy comprehension. Thereafter, the questionnaires were back-translated into English

in order to ensure that all the items were adequately captured. This back-translation (Brislin, 1980), was then validated by a team of bi-lingual experts.

Although, the use of procedural remedies seems to have the tendency of minimizing the negative consequences of common method bias, Podsakoff et al. (2012) argue that it is often difficult for researchers to get all the procedural remedies that will meet all its needs. Hence, the use of statistical remedies has also been found, to be a suitable complement to the procedural remedies, in eliminating, or minimizing the issue of common method bias (MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012). While the procedural remedies precede data collection exercise, the statistical remedies are instituted, after the data have already been collected.

This statistical technique of Harman's one-factor test (Podsakoff et al., 2003) was employed by the researcher by loading all the items in the constructs into principal component factor analysis (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986), and then examined the results of un-rotated factors with a view to ascertain the number of factors that are necessary to explain the variance in the constructs.

However, a common method variance often becomes a problem in a study if the outcome of the analysis produces one single factor, or when one single item in the constructs accounted for the highest part of the covariance among the measures (Podsakoff et al., 2003). In this study, the result of the Harman's one-factor test for statistical remedy for common method variance (see Appendix C), yielded 22 factors, explaining 67 percent of the cumulative variance, with the first factor explaining only 21.96 percent of total variance, which is below 50% threshold suggested by Podsakoff et al, (2003). The

outcome of this analysis indicates that common method bias is not a problem in this study.

5.6 Demographic Profile of the Respondents

The focus of this section is on the demographic characteristics of the sample respondents. Some of these characteristics include the respondents' age, educational qualifications, marital status, business location and the years of business operations.

As shown the Table 5.7, 125(34.6%) respondents fall within the ages of 20 to 30 years. This was then followed by respondents whose ages ranged between of 31 to 40 years, which total about 98 respondents and accounted for 27.1% of the total respondents. Following closely with the number of 66, were respondents within the age group of between 41 to 50 years, which constitute 18.3% of the total respondents. However, respondents whose age group falls below 20 years were just 51, accounting for 14.1%, while the least respondents in the category are those above 50 years of age who are just 21, accounting for just 5.8 of the entire sample. This classification has clearly shown that the active age of the women micro-entrepreneurs in the selected states falls within the ages of 20 to 30 years of age with 125 respondents accounting for 34.6 percent of the entire population of the study.

Following closely is the educational qualifications of the respondents. Majority of the respondents, that is 141(39.1%) are primary/secondary school certificate holders, while 80(22.2%) respondents are without formal education. There are also 72 respondents, which account for only 19.9% that possesses university degrees or its equivalent, while those with OND/NCE amounted to 49(13.6%) of the total respondents, with only

17(5.8%) respondents possessing Master's Degree. Respondent with professional medical qualifications (i.e., MBBS), was just 1 respondent, accounting for just 0.3% of the total respondents. This academic classification shows that, bulk of the respondents, 141(39.1%) are primary/secondary school leavers, with another 80(22.2%) of the respondents having no formal education.

The above educational classification of the respondents goes to show that majority of respondents have not acquired the basic knowledge of entrepreneurship before venturing into business. This is because these qualifications may not have acquainted them with the basic knowledge and skills required to run a successful business, as survival in modern day business requires that the entrepreneurs possesses relevant educational background and sound entrepreneurial skills. This will enable them to compete favourably with other competitors in the market place and ensure that they remain in the business. However, one cannot rule out the possibility of some pockets of respondents who might have acquired certain entrepreneurial skills from any of their families' members, or relatives who are into business, or through the method of apprenticeship, where a learner is attached to a master, who teaches him/her the arts business.

On the issue of the marital status of the respondents, 250 respondents, accounting for 69.3% are married, while 64(17.7%) still are single. The number of divorcee are 16, accounting for 4.4%, while those without husband (widows) are 28 which is just 7.8% of the total respondents. However, this marital classification shows that majority of the respondents (i.e., 250), which is 69.3% are married, signifying that they are all saddled with the dual responsibilities of being housekeepers, and at the same time, engaging in entrepreneurship. With the bulk of the respondents being predominantly Muslim women,

their entrepreneurial activities are seen as secondary to their primary functions of childbearing and housekeepers.

In this form of culture, the activities of women in entrepreneurship merely serves as a way of augmenting the family income, and to partially, free the women from the shackles of prevailing ‘purdah system’, which is being practice in most of the Muslim’s patriarchal family settings in northern Nigeria. This makes the majority of the women, a necessity entrepreneur, as majority of them are driven into starting businesses, as a result of the “push-factor”. This is in contrast to the “opportunity-driven” entrepreneurs, which are mostly found in the other geo-political zones in the country, specifically, in the western and eastern part of Nigeria, where the culture gives women equal opportunity as their male counterpart, to excel in their chosen profession. This later culture is similar to what obtain in some Western and Eastern developed countries of the world, where women goes into businesses as a result of the “pull-factor” (Bijaoui, 2012; Giacomini, et al., 2011; Orhan & Scott, 2001).

Furthermore, the location of the business speaks volume on the extent and scale of operation of the business activities. Over half of the respondents (i.e., 203) accounting for 56.2%, operate as home based. This confirms the influence of the dominant culture of the people in the study area, where women perform several other roles, such as housekeepers, in addition to the running of their petty businesses as a way of augmenting the income of family. However, the remaining 157(43.5%) were externally based. That is, they operate away from their households, as stall or shop holders from rented apartments. This avails them the opportunity of associating themselves with their environment.

Lastly, the duration of the business tells more on their survival ability. 171(47.4%) of the respondents have been in operation for the past 7 to 10 years, while 99(27.4%) respondents fall within 3 to 6 years of existence. Those above 10 years of operation are 91(25.2%) respondents. However, respondents below 3 years of operation were excluded from the analysis because they fall within the three years minimum threshold set for determining success in business (Salman, 2009).

Table 5.7
Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Demography	Indicators	Frequency	Percentage
Age	20 years and below	51	14.1
	21 to 30 years	125	34.6
	31 to 40 years	98	27.1
	41 to 50 years	66	18.3
	Above 50 years	21	5.8
	Total	361	100
Educational Qualification	No formal education	80	22.2
	Primary/Secondary Certificate	141	39.1
	NCE/OND	49	13.6
	HND/Degree	72	19.9
	Master's Degree	17	4.7
	Medical Doctor	1	0.3
Marital status	Total	361	100
	Single	64	17.7
	Married	250	69.3
	Divorcee	16	4.4
	Widow	28	7.8
	Total	361	100
Location of the business	Home based	203	56.2
	External based	157	43.5
	Total	361	100
Years of operation	3 to 6 years	99	27.4
	7 to 10 years	171	47.4
	Above 10 years	91	25.2
	Total	361	100

5.7 Descriptive Analysis of Constructs

The primary focus of this section is on the descriptive statistics of the latent constructs, which comprises both the exogenous and endogenous variables of the study. This description takes the form of showing the computed means and standard deviation of the

latent constructs. All the latent constructs used were measured on a five-point rating Likert scale depicted by 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. For easier interpretation of the responses, the five-point rating scale were re-sized and categorized into three levels namely: Low, Moderate and High. Based on this re-categorization, a mean score of less than 2 = $(3/3 + \text{lowest value } 1)$ is considered as low while a mean score of above 4 = $(\text{highest value } 5 - 3/3)$ is considered as high, with scores falling within these lower and higher values being considered as moderate (Sassenberg, matschke, & Scholl, 2011)

On the basis of the above classifications arising from this re-categorisation, Table 5.8 below shows the overall mean scores and standard deviation values of the latent constructs which range between 2.3816 to 4.1396 and 0.47342 to 0.55054 respectively. Specifically, the mean scores and standard deviation of the entrepreneurs' business success is 4.0882 and 0.53170 respectively. These values indicate that the respondents have high perception of their successes. Also, the mean scores and the standard deviation of entrepreneurial competences as depicted in the table are 4.1396 and 0.47342 respectively. These scores of the variable suggest that the respondents' perception of construct is very high. However, the respondents' perception for entrepreneurial orientation and culture were shown to be moderate with the mean scores and standard deviation of entrepreneurial orientation being 3.9150 and 0.55054, while that of culture were 2.3816 and 0.53901 respectively.

Table 5.8
Descriptive Analysis of the Constructs

Latent constructs	Code	No. of items	Mean	Std. Deviation
Non-financial success	ESC	11	4.10	0.53170
Entrepreneurs' success	ESC	11	4.0882	0.53170
Strategic	STR	9	3.9876	0.52125
Commitment	COM	4	4.1814	0.66183
Conceptual	CON	6	4.0567	0.55923
Opportunity	OPP	4	4.1787	0.57899
Organising	ORG	10	4.1971	0.57562
Relationship	REL	5	4.2364	0.70887
Entrepreneurial Competencies	ECO	38	4.1396	0.47342
Proactiveness	PRO	3	4.1803	0.62523
Risk Taking	RSK	4	3.7329	0.76506
Innovativeness	INN	3	3.8318	0.69731
Entrepreneurial Orientation	EOR		3.9150	0.55054
Individualism/Collectivism	CIC	6	2.2772	0.71011
Uncertainty Avoidance	CUA	5	1.8634	0.62580
Masculinity/Femininity	CMF	5	2.5897	0.97540
Power distant	CPD	6	2.7958	0.88717
Culture	CUL	22	2.3816	0.53901

Note: <2 (Low); >2>4 (Moderate) and 4 (High)

5.8 An Overview of Structural Equation Models (SEM) Assessment

The two commonly adopted methods of modeling estimate of relationship among latent constructs in structural equation model (SEM) are the covariance-based (CB-SEM) and the variance-based (PLS-SEM) (Chin., 1998). Although, neither of these two methods is superior to the other, their usage is, largely, dependent on the objective the researcher seeks to achieve (Hair et al., 2012b).

One major distinction between these two approaches, and which usually inform the choice of a method being adopted by every researcher is that a covariance-based (SEM) is considered as a confirmatory technique of analysis (i.e., testing theories to either confirm or reject), while the variance-based (PLS-SEM) is considered as a prediction oriented technique of analysis (i.e., developing theories by explaining variance in endogenous variables) (Hair et al., 2014).

As a variance-based model estimate, PLS-SEM uses the existing data in estimating the relationship between path models (coefficient) with a view to reducing the error terms (i.e., residual variance) of the endogenous latent constructs in the structural model (Hair et al., 2014; Chin, 2010). Alternatively, PLS-SEM is a technique of statistical analysis which estimates path coefficient (i.e., path model relationships) that maximizes the R^2 values of the (target) endogenous latent constructs (Hair et al., 2014). Hence, its usage in various academic disciplines has exponentially increased due to its methodological features, which has in turns, made it a viable substitute to the erstwhile popular covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM) approach (Hair et al., 2014). Its advantages over the CB-SEM, derives from its usefulness in proffering solutions to some commonly encountered problems in social sciences research, notably among which are cases of small sample size, non-normality of data and multicollinearity (Hair et al., 2014; Reinartz, et al., 2009).

Furthermore, PLS-SEM has become a very suitable tool of analyzing high complex models involving several manifest and latent indicators, hierarchical latent variable models, and for determining the interactive effects of a moderating or mediating construct (Chin, Marcolin, & Newsted, 2003). It has also served as a good predictor of target endogenous constructs (Hair et al., 2014; Dijkstra & Henseler, 2012), and very suitable in the treatment of formative and reflective measurement models, as well as a single-item construct (Hair et al., 2014). Additionally, PLS-SEM has the ability of accommodating large number of items (i.e., indicators) at once (Dijkstra & Henseler, 2012), and it is suitable in instances where the variables under investigation are new and

or, where their measurement model needs to be developed (Hair et al., 2014; Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010).

However, models assessment in PLS-SEM come in two stages: The first stage comprises the measurement model (outer models), which describes the interactions between the exogenous latent constructs and their measures (i.e., items or indicators) and secondly, the structural model (inner models) which describes the interactions between the exogenous and endogenous latent constructs (Hair et al., 2014). To fully assess the significance of the model in this present study, the researcher employed a SmartPLS 3.0, software application package (Ringle, Wende, & Will, 2005), to assess both the measurement and structural models of the constructs. This assessment process consists of two-step procedure of estimation (Henseler et al., 2009), involving firstly, an estimation of the psychometric properties of measurement model, and secondly, the path estimates of the structural model.

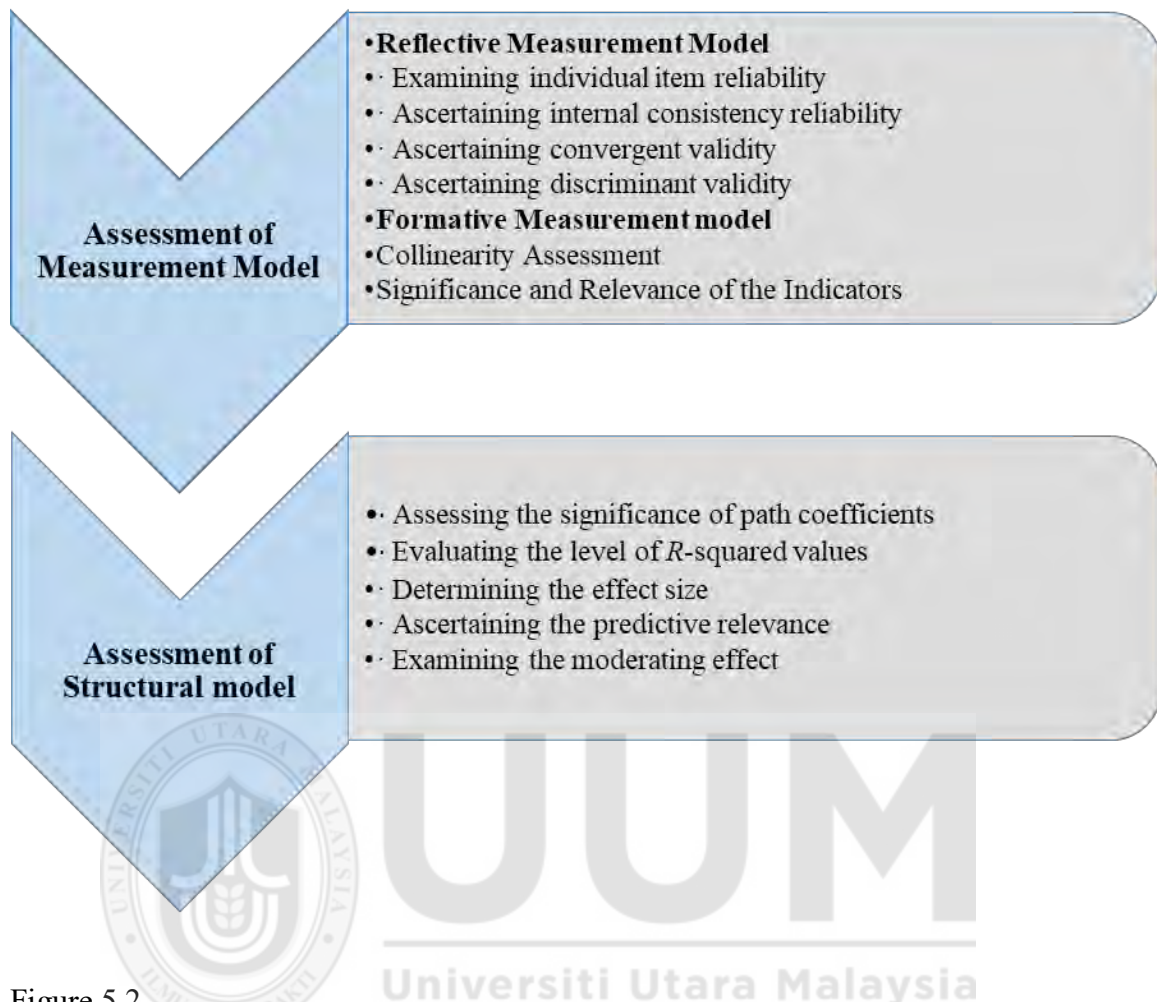


Figure 5.2

An Adapted Two-Step Process of PLS Path Model Assessment

Source: (Henseler et al., 2009)

5.8.1 Assessment of Measurement Models (Outer model)

Analogous to the two types of PLS-SEM models assessment discussed above, the measurement model assessment is further categorized into two forms. These are reflective measurement models and formative measurement models (Hair et al., 2014). These two models are often distinguished from each other by the direction of their arrows. In the case of a reflective measurement model, the direction of the arrows are from the constructs to the indicators, while the direction of the arrows of the formative measurement model on the other hand, are from the indicators to the constructs (Hair et

al., 2014). Due to these discrepancies in the direction of the arrows, the two measurement models are evaluated differently.

Consequently, the assessment of the reflective measure is done by calculating the outer loadings of the indicators. This is because the indicators are reflective of their respective latent construct (Jarvis et al., 2003). On the other hand, the formative measures are assessed by calculating the outer weights, because the latent constructs are the consequence of their respective indicators (Bollen & Lennox, 1991).



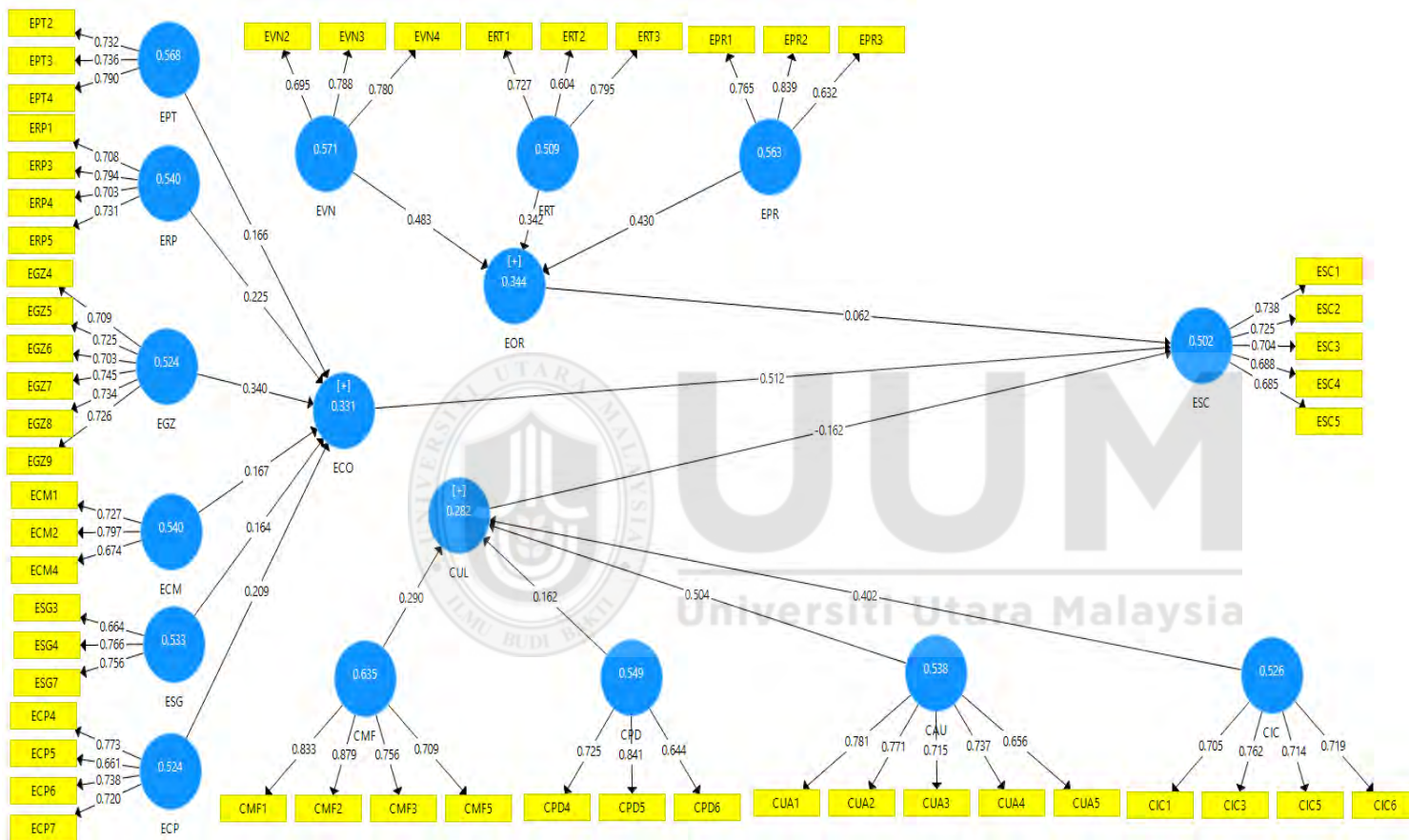


Figure 5.3
Measurement Model

5.8.1.1 Assessment of Reflective Measurement Models

The assessment of reflective measurement model is done by examining the reliability of the individual items (i.e., indicators) measuring each latent construct, as well as assessing the internal consistency reliability, (i.e., the construct reliability), the convergent validity as well as the discriminant validity of each reflective construct ((Hair *et al.*, 2014; Henseler *et al.*, 2009). Each of this assessment criteria are discussed below.

5.8.1.1.1 Individual Indicator (Item) Reliability

An indicator's reliability refers to the proportion of its variance that is explained by the latent construct. In this study, the reliability of each indicator was assessed by examining their outer loadings (Hair *et al.*, 2014; Duarte & Rapso, 2010). By adopting the rule of thumb for the retention of reflective indicators, whose outer loadings falls within the range of 0.40 and 0.70 (Hair *et al.*, 2014; Peng & Lai, 2012), item whose loadings falls below, or are within this range were deleted. This is done as long as their removal increases the values of the composite reliability (CR), and the average variance extracted (AVE).

However, to achieve the minimum threshold, 33 items were deleted from the total of 82 reflective items, measuring the 14 reflective constructs contained in the model. In the final analysis, a total of 49 items whose outer loadings ranged between 0.604 and 0.879 were retained for further analysis. However, nine items whose loadings fall below 0.70 [e.g., CUA5 (0.656), ECP5 (0.661), ESG3 (0.664), ESC5 (0.685), ESC4 (0.688), ECM4 (0.674), EVN2 (0.695), ERT2 (0.604) and EPR3 (0.632)] were also retained. This is because firstly, the outer loadings were all above the critical level of 0.40 (Hair, *et al.*, 2014) and secondly, all the values were greater than 0.6 (Birkinshaw, Morrison, & Hulland, 1995).

Moreover, some of these loadings were very close 0.70 by approximation, and the removal of these items does not bring much significant changes to either the CR or AVE. On the basis of Hair et al. (2014) and Birkinshaw, et al. (1995) recommendations for item retention, all the items in this model have been found reliable to measure the corresponding individual reflective latent construct (see Table 5.9 below).

5.8.1.1.2 Internal Consistency Reliability

This refers to the level at which the entire parts of a measurement technique measure the same concept (Sun et al., 2007). In other words, it refers to the interrelatedness of a given set of items (McNeish, 2017). The two commonly used estimators in determining the internal consistency reliability of an indicator (item) in organizational research are the Cronbachs alpha coefficient (α) and composite reliability (ρ_c) (Peterson & Kim, 2013). The Cronbachs alpha coefficient provides estimate of an item's reliability on the basis of their inter-correlation (see Cronbach & Shavelson, 2004).

Despite the popularity and usage of the Cronbachs alpha's coefficient, this coefficient is still being criticized on the account of its assumption, that all items of a construct makes equal contributions to the construct, without considering the loadings of each individual items (Götz et al., 2010), thereby underestimating the exact internal consistency reliability of the construct. On the other hand, composite reliability coefficient, was seen to provide a true and un-bias measure of internal consistency reliability of a measure (Hair *et al.*, 2014; Peterson & Kim, 2013) because of its consideration for variations in outer loadings of each individual construct's indicators (Hair et al., 2014).

In line with the above exposition, an assessment of the internal consistency reliability of all the indicators (i.e., items) were carried out using the PLS-SEM algorithm to determine the composite reliability (ρ_c) of each indicator. In this study, the choice of composite reliability over the most widely used Cronbach's alpha (Peterson & Kim, 2013, Sun et al., 2007), derives from its consideration for variations in outer loadings of the individual construct's indicators (Hair et al., 2014), which is in contrast with the assumptions of equality of loadings of all the indicators, as provided by Cronbach's alpha. The composite reliability (ρ_c) of a construct's indicator is usually calculated using the below formula:

$$\rho_c = \frac{(\sum_i l_i)^2}{(\sum_i l_i)^2 + \sum_i \text{var}(e_i)}$$

Where l_i symbolizes the standardized outer loading of the indicator variable l of the specific construct, e_i is the measurement error of the indicator variable l , and $\text{var}(e)$ denotes the variance of the measurement error, which is defined as $1 - l_i^2$.

In using the composite reliability coefficient as a measure of internal consistency reliability, a value of above 0.70 has been suggested as being adequate (Hair et al., 2014, Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). As shown in the Table 5.9 below, the composite reliability coefficient of each latent construct ranged between 0.754 and 0.874, which are above the 0.70 minimum suggested threshold (Hair et al., 2014; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). These values indicate that the internal consistency of the measures used in this study are adequate and reliable (Hair et al., 2014).

5.8.1.1.3 Convergent Validity

Convergent validity has to do with the extent at which every single item in a construct positively correlates with other items of the same constructs (Hair et al., 2014). Hence, this is achieved, when the values obtained from the items measuring same construct are positively correlated with the other items of the same construct (Hair et al., 2014). The convergence validity of a construct is assessed by determining both the outer loadings of the items and the average variance extracted (AVE).

An Average variance extracted (AVE) refers to the total mean values of the squared loadings of all items (indicators) that are related to the construct (i.e., the sum of the squared loadings divided by the number of indicators). It is, in other words, equivalent to the communality of a construct (Hair et al., 2014). Hence, the convergent validity of a measure is established when the average variance extracted (AVE) obtained from the outer loadings of the indicators is 0.50 or more (Chin, 1998a).

In line with Chin (1998a), the values of the average variance extracted for each of the construct in this model, as shown in Table 5.9, is above the minimum threshold of 0.50 suggested by Chin (1998a). This is an indication that the convergent validity of the indicators used in the study is adequate.

Table 5.9

Psychometric properties for first-order Reflective Constructs

Second Order Constructs	First Order Constructs	Items	Loadings	Composite Reliability	Ave. Variance Extracted
Culture	Individualism/Collectivism	CIC1	0.705	0.816	0.526
		CIC3	0.762		
		CIC5	0.714		
		CIC6	0.719		
	Masculinity/Femininity	CMF1	0.833	0.874	0.635
		CMF2	0.879		
		CMF3	0.756		
		CMF5	0.709		
	Power distant	CPD4	0.725	0.783	0.549
		CPD5	0.841		
		CPD6	0.644		
	Uncertainty Avoidance	CUA1	0.781	0.853	0.538
		CUA2	0.771		
		CUA3	0.715		
		CUA4	0.737		
		CUA5	0.656		
Entrepreneurial Competencies	Commitment competency	ECM1	0.727	0.778	0.540
		ECM2	0.797		
		ECM4	0.674		
	Conceptual competency	ECP4	0.773	0.814	0.524
		ECP5	0.661		
		ECP6	0.738		
		ECP7	0.720		
	Organizing competency	EGZ4	0.709	0.868	0.524
		EGZ5	0.725		
		EGZ6	0.703		
		EGZ7	0.745		
		EGZ8	0.734		
		EGZ9	0.726		
	Opportunity competency	EPT2	0.732	0.797	0.568
		EPT3	0.736		
		EPT4	0.790		
	Strategic competency	ESG3	0.664	0.774	0.533
		ESG4	0.766		

Entrepreneurial Orientation	Innovativeness	ESG7	0.756		
		EVN2	0.695	0.799	0.571
		EVN3	0.788		
		EVN4	0.780		
	Risk taking	ERT1	0.727	0.754	0.509
		ERT2	0.604		
		ERT3	0.795		
	Proactiveness	EPR1	0.765	0.792	0.563
		EPR2	0.839		
		EPR3	0.632		
Entrepreneurial success	Entrepreneurial success	ESC1	0.738	0.834	0.502
		ESC2	0.725		
		ESC3	0.704		
		ESC4	0.688		
		ESC5	0.685		

Note: significant at < 0.01 CAU = Uncertainty avoidance, CIC = Individualism/Collectivism, CMF = Masculinity/Femininity, CPD = Power distant, ECM = Commitment competencies, ECP = Conceptual competencies, EGZ = Organising competencies, EPT = Opportunity competencies, ERP = Relationship competencies, ESG = Strategic competencies, EPR = Proactiveness, ERT = Risk taking, EVN = Innovativeness, CUL = Culture, ECO = Entrepreneurial competencies, EOR = Entrepreneurial orientation

5.8.1.1.4 Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity refers to the extent to which measures/indicators of particular construct empirically defer from the measures/ indicators of another construct (Duarte & Raposo, 2010).

Establishing a discriminant validity in a model is an indication of the uniqueness of that construct, because it implies that, no phenomena captured by that construct can be found in any other constructs present in that model (Hair et al., 2014). The most commonly used method of assessing discriminant validity in a model is through the Fornell-Larcker criterion and the cross loading of the indicators.

The Fornell-Larcker criterion (1981) examines discriminant validity by comparing the square root values of each latent construct's AVEs with the correlation of the other latent constructs. In other words, this criterion maintains that the AVEs of each latent construct should be higher

than its correlation with any other constructs in the model (Hair et al., 2014). The basic idea behind this criterion is that, a construct is perceived to share more variance among its associated items than it will with any other constructs in the model. As a rule of thumb, to achieve discriminant validity in a model, Fornell-Larcker (1981) suggests an AVE of 0.50 or above. From the Table 5.9 above, the ranges of the average variance extracted fall between 0.502 and 0.635 suggesting an acceptable level. The comparison of the latent constructs correlation with the square root of the average variance extracted (see, bolded values) in the Table 5.10 below, shows that the average variance extracted (AVE) were greater in values than that of the correlation among the latent constructs. This is an indication that discriminant validity of this study has been achieved (Fornell-Larcker, 1981).

Consequently, discriminant validity can further be assessed through the cross loadings of the constructs indicators. These cross loadings of indicators can be achieved, by comparing the loadings of one construct with the loadings (cross loadings) of the other constructs. This in essence, means that, the outer loadings of the indicators of a particular construct should be greater than its loadings (i.e., cross loadings) on other constructs (Chin, 1998a).

From the results of this cross loading in Table 5.11 shown below, the loadings of all the indicators of each particular construct are higher, in comparison to its loadings on other constructs. This is therefore, an indication that discriminant validity has been achieved in this study.

Table 5.10
Fornell-Larcker Criterion

	CAU	CIC	CMF	CPD	ECM	ECP	EGZ	EPR	EPT	ERP	ERT	ESC	ESG	EVN
CAU	0.733													
CIC	0.537	0.725												
CMF	0.137	0.440	0.797											
CPD	0.216	0.284	0.445	0.741										
ECM	-0.475	-0.355	-0.073	-0.177	0.735									
ECP	-0.460	-0.403	-0.150	-0.217	0.556	0.724								
EGZ	-0.521	-0.437	-0.128	-0.240	0.521	0.555	0.724							
EPR	-0.539	-0.501	-0.179	-0.153	0.347	0.428	0.344	0.750						
EPT	-0.453	-0.325	-0.06	-0.203	0.540	0.558	0.494	0.386	0.753					
ERP	-0.514	-0.378	-0.143	-0.199	0.613	0.543	0.545	0.429	0.515	0.735				
ERT	-0.413	-0.447	-0.098	-0.096	0.316	0.382	0.380	0.289	0.322	0.338	0.713			
ESC	-0.524	-0.475	-0.106	-0.192	0.527	0.446	0.526	0.404	0.503	0.510	0.326	0.708		
ESG	-0.555	-0.507	-0.213	-0.229	0.496	0.543	0.521	0.510	0.496	0.510	0.397	0.570	0.730	
EVN	-0.437	-0.464	-0.178	-0.168	0.351	0.478	0.447	0.521	0.452	0.448	0.491	0.434	0.516	0.756

Note: Uncertainty avoidance, CIC = Individualism/Collectivism, CMF = Masculinity/Femininity, CPD = Power distant, ECM = Commitment competencies, ECP = Conceptual competencies, EGZ = Organising competencies, EPT = Opportunity competencies, ERP = Relationship competencies, ESG = Strategic competencies, EPR = Proactiveness, ERT = Risk taking, EVN = Innovativeness, CUL = Culture, ECO = Entrepreneurial competencies, EOR = Entrepreneurial orientation

Table 5.11

Loadings and cross loadings

	CAU	CIC	CMF	CPD	ECM	ECP	EGZ	EPR	EPT	ERP	ERT	ESC	ESG	EVN
CUA1	0.781	0.477	0.085	0.124	-0.405	-0.346	-0.486	-0.477	-0.393	-0.372	-0.370	-0.459	-0.441	-0.351
CUA2	0.771	0.368	0.082	0.223	-0.443	-0.366	-0.442	-0.422	-0.330	-0.483	-0.292	-0.412	-0.452	-0.263
CUA3	0.715	0.337	0.031	0.130	-0.289	-0.322	-0.369	-0.353	-0.278	-0.377	-0.337	-0.353	-0.327	-0.308
CUA4	0.737	0.288	0.030	0.082	-0.333	-0.341	-0.353	-0.362	-0.379	-0.330	-0.253	-0.324	-0.435	-0.316
CUA5	0.656	0.467	0.249	0.217	-0.259	-0.307	-0.250	-0.346	-0.278	-0.314	-0.254	-0.353	-0.372	-0.356
CIC1	0.388	0.705	0.284	0.170	-0.316	-0.359	-0.399	-0.421	-0.341	-0.344	-0.439	-0.387	-0.427	-0.355
CIC3	0.476	0.762	0.237	0.265	-0.365	-0.344	-0.359	-0.389	-0.253	-0.362	-0.339	-0.426	-0.400	-0.349
CIC5	0.331	0.714	0.299	0.173	-0.139	-0.22	-0.225	-0.269	-0.173	-0.210	-0.311	-0.259	-0.303	-0.311
CIC6	0.355	0.719	0.456	0.209	-0.198	-0.243	-0.279	-0.367	-0.177	-0.175	-0.215	-0.297	-0.338	-0.329
CMF1	0.180	0.434	0.833	0.364	-0.090	-0.175	-0.089	-0.183	-0.100	-0.124	-0.132	-0.081	-0.154	-0.222
CMF2	0.146	0.356	0.879	0.358	-0.096	-0.148	-0.147	-0.190	-0.091	-0.198	-0.101	-0.148	-0.192	-0.139
CMF3	0.070	0.322	0.756	0.394	-0.062	-0.100	-0.136	-0.068	0.011	-0.083	-0.077	-0.093	-0.191	-0.148
CMF5	-0.003	0.263	0.709	0.306	0.052	-0.021	-0.018	-0.109	0.024	-0.017	0.037	0.012	-0.143	-0.019
CPD4	0.057	0.222	0.365	0.725	-0.129	-0.140	-0.166	0.022	-0.114	-0.089	-0.069	-0.031	-0.083	-0.086
CPD5	0.308	0.268	0.364	0.841	-0.178	-0.243	-0.245	-0.286	-0.238	-0.256	-0.119	-0.275	-0.286	-0.221
CPD6	-0.037	0.067	0.238	0.644	-0.031	0.006	-0.043	0.103	0.001	0.025	0.046	0.000	-0.035	0.054
ECM1	-0.340	-0.301	-0.089	-0.156	0.727	0.448	0.380	0.209	0.339	0.443	0.203	0.350	0.316	0.224
ECM2	-0.384	-0.294	-0.071	-0.145	0.797	0.448	0.340	0.252	0.460	0.517	0.321	0.437	0.428	0.239
ECM4	-0.320	-0.182	0.002	-0.088	0.674	0.325	0.436	0.305	0.387	0.385	0.162	0.370	0.344	0.316
ECP4	-0.401	-0.404	-0.127	-0.156	0.473	0.773	0.487	0.317	0.423	0.434	0.238	0.402	0.446	0.331
ECP5	-0.359	-0.287	-0.032	-0.06	0.360	0.661	0.370	0.326	0.348	0.365	0.256	0.306	0.365	0.326
ECP6	-0.280	-0.284	-0.213	-0.248	0.345	0.738	0.343	0.287	0.409	0.394	0.344	0.347	0.383	0.372
ECP7	-0.285	-0.180	-0.058	-0.161	0.421	0.720	0.394	0.312	0.433	0.375	0.277	0.229	0.373	0.36
EGZ4	-0.254	-0.253	0.006	-0.09	0.313	0.330	0.709	0.236	0.372	0.364	0.195	0.287	0.334	0.349
EGZ5	-0.305	-0.297	-0.057	-0.155	0.385	0.468	0.725	0.304	0.441	0.447	0.248	0.357	0.439	0.377
EGZ6	-0.326	-0.272	-0.092	-0.163	0.353	0.403	0.703	0.229	0.265	0.338	0.164	0.354	0.367	0.243

EGZ7	-0.435	-0.319	-0.065	-0.142	0.390	0.364	0.745	0.250	0.361	0.376	0.308	0.391	0.339	0.351
EGZ8	-0.474	-0.370	-0.165	-0.283	0.409	0.387	0.734	0.254	0.317	0.423	0.336	0.466	0.417	0.314
EGZ9	-0.457	-0.377	-0.174	-0.200	0.406	0.447	0.726	0.213	0.379	0.407	0.382	0.419	0.357	0.303
EPR1	-0.422	-0.443	-0.173	-0.084	0.243	0.351	0.288	0.765	0.254	0.361	0.290	0.310	0.366	0.403
EPR2	-0.443	-0.431	-0.171	-0.183	0.268	0.317	0.296	0.839	0.324	0.350	0.218	0.349	0.435	0.421
EPR3	-0.340	-0.224	-0.040	-0.068	0.278	0.296	0.175	0.632	0.299	0.242	0.125	0.241	0.343	0.345
EPT2	-0.330	-0.308	-0.142	-0.173	0.327	0.408	0.364	0.276	0.732	0.371	0.256	0.353	0.383	0.384
EPT3	-0.362	-0.125	0.216	-0.030	0.432	0.369	0.320	0.306	0.736	0.328	0.171	0.371	0.302	0.346
EPT4	-0.337	-0.290	-0.174	-0.235	0.458	0.476	0.424	0.294	0.790	0.454	0.290	0.411	0.426	0.302
ERP1	-0.339	-0.353	-0.292	-0.236	0.369	0.444	0.438	0.272	0.347	0.708	0.297	0.337	0.341	0.342
ERP3	-0.419	-0.289	-0.127	-0.210	0.515	0.398	0.466	0.374	0.417	0.794	0.171	0.450	0.443	0.280
ERP4	-0.352	-0.239	0.045	-0.068	0.440	0.357	0.351	0.260	0.358	0.703	0.291	0.310	0.328	0.353
ERP5	-0.396	-0.228	-0.033	-0.058	0.474	0.397	0.336	0.348	0.390	0.731	0.249	0.392	0.378	0.354
ERT1	-0.221	-0.208	0.032	0.101	0.145	0.289	0.247	0.230	0.219	0.200	0.727	0.186	0.188	0.422
ERT2	-0.387	-0.363	-0.059	-0.138	0.394	0.274	0.278	0.151	0.280	0.336	0.604	0.313	0.367	0.245
ERT3	-0.306	-0.405	-0.182	-0.189	0.186	0.261	0.295	0.227	0.208	0.217	0.795	0.224	0.323	0.364
ESC1	-0.434	-0.446	-0.238	-0.167	0.460	0.412	0.417	0.337	0.420	0.412	0.190	0.738	0.536	0.308
ESC2	-0.363	-0.294	0.008	-0.141	0.384	0.271	0.342	0.300	0.332	0.364	0.258	0.725	0.412	0.270
ESC3	-0.340	-0.376	-0.124	-0.146	0.334	0.263	0.366	0.222	0.273	0.288	0.207	0.704	0.300	0.266
ESC4	-0.320	-0.288	-0.003	-0.149	0.356	0.318	0.384	0.261	0.407	0.339	0.260	0.688	0.325	0.323
ESC5	-0.382	-0.254	0.026	-0.070	0.309	0.289	0.343	0.298	0.329	0.389	0.252	0.685	0.409	0.372
ESG3	-0.425	-0.400	-0.289	-0.256	0.332	0.409	0.423	0.343	0.223	0.357	0.323	0.402	0.664	0.339
ESG4	-0.405	-0.341	-0.038	-0.086	0.389	0.456	0.357	0.405	0.418	0.338	0.258	0.416	0.766	0.417
ESG7	-0.388	-0.373	-0.149	-0.166	0.364	0.325	0.364	0.366	0.436	0.421	0.292	0.431	0.756	0.371
EVN2	-0.245	-0.288	-0.077	-0.042	0.105	0.308	0.315	0.317	0.274	0.199	0.438	0.264	0.257	0.695
EVN3	-0.388	-0.347	-0.081	-0.138	0.342	0.378	0.351	0.454	0.376	0.408	0.334	0.402	0.433	0.788
EVN4	-0.349	-0.412	-0.244	-0.195	0.333	0.395	0.347	0.402	0.370	0.397	0.350	0.310	0.468	0.78

5.8.1.2 Assessment of the Formative Second Order Constructs

One common mistake that has often been made by researchers, specifically those who uses PLS-SEM in estimating the parameters of higher-order construct, is the modeling of second-order construct with a reflective first-order construct while, conceptually, the appropriate form of modeling this construct would have been with the formative first-order constructs (Podsakoff, et al., 2006). However, this mistake has often resulted in the use of the evaluation criteria of the reflective measurement in assessing that of the formative measures (Hair et al., 2012b).

To this common mistake, Lee and Cadogan (2013) argued that there is “no such thing” as reflective-reflective hierarchical latent variable model, and they, on the basis of this, described such a model as “at worst, misleading, and at best meaningless” (p. 244). Hence, in this study, indicators are modelled as reflective of the first-order, with the first-order being modelled as formative of the second-order, thereby making the modelling structure a reflective-formative, (i.e., Type II model) of the hierarchical latent variable modeling (Becker, et al., 2012).

In a PLS-SEM path modeling, the formative measurement is often associated with mode B. This is because the formative measures are built on the assumption that the indicators caused the construct (Hair et al., 2014, Becker et al., 2012). Hence, the model is depicted by arrows pointing to the direction of the latent constructs from the indicators (see, Chuah, Cheah, Memon, & Yacob, 2015; Afthanorhan, 2014). Whereas, in a reflective-formative type II of higher-order construct, where repeated-indicator approach is used in the estimating the parameters, the standard approach is to use the mode A measurement (Wold, 1982). This is because, in this type of higher-order construct (i.e., reflective-formative), the second-order

construct is a formative of the first-order latent variables, while the manifest indicators served as the reflective of first-order latent construct (Hair, et al., 2012b; Ringle et al., 2012; Becker, Klein, & Wetzels, 2012, Chin, 2010; Henseler, et al., 2009).

However, one distinguishing feature of a formative measure is its specificity, because every item is seen as an integral part of the constructs' domain, the omission of which potentially, alters the true nature of the construct (Hair et al., 2014). This is why the assessment of formative latent construct measure defers from that of reflective constructs. Thus, according to Hair et al. (2014), in a formative measurement model, the conventional construct's validity and reliability test do not apply. However, the important issue is to determine the extent at which the construct's measure positively correlates among themselves before proceeding to assess its level of significance and relevance. It is on this note that this study validates the second-order formative latent constructs based on the collinearity of its items, and on its level of significance and relevance.

5.8.1.2.1 Collinearity Assessment of Second Order Formative Constructs

Collinearity refers to a situation, which occurs when there is a high level of positive correlation between the indicators of the formative construct. This is because the presence of collinearity among the indicators of a formative construct is an indication of a multiple tapping into same aspect of the construct (Petter, Straub, & Rai, 2007). This is a very crucial issue in path modeling because it can result into inaccurate estimation of the constructs weight leading to an increase in the standard errors, thereby reducing the statistical significance of the estimates (Hair et al., 2014). However, collinearity among formative indicators are assessed through the variance inflation factor (VIF).

Statistically, collinearity becomes a serious issue when the VIF exceeds 10.0 (Petter et al., 2007). However, for formative measures, the VIF should not be greater than 3.3 (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw 2006), while Hair et al. (2014), deemed variance inflation factor (VIF) of < 5.0 , as being appropriate. Consistent with the above, an assessment of the collinearity statistics of all the second-order formative constructs were carried out, and the resultant outcomes were depicted in the Table 5.12 shown below. The VIF values of all the constructs fall within the acceptable region and this indicates that, collinearity problem is not an issue in this study.

Table 5.12
Collinearity Statistics

	CUL	ECO	EOR
CAU	1.459		
CIC	1.741		
CMF	1.483		
CPD	1.287		
ECM		1.971	
ECP		1.967	
EGZ		1.801	
EPT		1.765	
ERP		1.964	
ESG		1.718	
EPR			1.375
ERT			1.321
EVN			1.661

5.8.1.2.2 Significance and Relevance of Second Order Formative Indicators

After assessing the collinearity issue of the second order formative construct, an evaluation of the contribution of each construct (i.e., indicator) was examined, in line with Hair, et al. (2014), for their relevance and significance. This assessment was done by calculating the outer weights of the path coefficient between the formative indicators and the latent constructs using the PLS algorithm. The resultant values of the outer weight were then compared, to determine

the relative contribution or importance of each indicator to the constructs. In order to test whether the formative indicators truly contribute in forming the latent construct, a bootstrapping procedure of 5,000 samples for 361 cases was used in estimating the parameters (i.e., outer weights) (Chin, 1998a). This procedure generates the beta values, standard errors, and t-statistics, used in assessing the significance of the outer weights of the formative indicators. The results of the algorithm and bootstrapping tests, as depicted by Table 5.13 below, shows that both the t-values and p-values for all the formative indicators are significant ($p < 0.001$).

Table 5.13
Path Coefficient/Weight assessment

Relationship	Direct effect (Beta Value)	Std Error	T-Values	P-Values
CAU → CUL	0.504	0.044	11.466	0.000
CIC → CUL	0.402	0.025	16.051	0.000
CMF → CUL	0.290	0.042	6.947	0.000
CPD → CUL	0.162	0.023	7.037	0.000
ECM → ECO	0.167	0.012	14.452	0.000
ECP → ECO	0.209	0.012	17.859	0.000
EGZ → ECO	0.340	0.020	17.099	0.000
EPT → ECO	0.166	0.012	13.396	0.000
ERP → ECO	0.225	0.015	15.173	0.000
ESG → ECO	0.164	0.012	13.398	0.000
EPR → EOR	0.430	0.028	15.208	0.000
ERT → EOR	0.342	0.030	11.344	0.000
EVN → EOR	0.483	0.026	18.873	0.000

Note: significant at < 0.01 CAU = Uncertainty avoidance, CIC = Individualism/Collectivism, CMF = Masculinity/Femininity, CPD = Power distant, ECM = Commitment competencies, ECP = Conceptual competencies, EGZ = Organising competencies, EPT = Opportunity competencies, ERP = Relationship competencies, ESG = Strategic competencies, EPR = Proactiveness, ERT = Risk taking, EVN = Innovativeness, CUL = Culture, ECO = Entrepreneurial competencies, EOR = Entrepreneurial orientation.

5.8.2 Validation of Higher Order Construct (HOC) or Hierarchical Latent Variable Model (HLVM)

The need to clearly, delineate a construct from a measure in order to accurately, test their nomological validity (Hulland, 1999) gives rise to the modeling of constructs at a higher level

of abstraction. Hence, a higher-order construct (HOC), hierarchical component model (HOM), second-order construct or hierarchical latent variable model (HLVM), as it is invariably called, refers to an explicit illustrations of multidimensional constructs, which exist at a higher level of abstraction, and are related to other constructs on the same level of abstraction completely mediating the influence from or to their underlying dimensions' (Chin, 1998b). Put differently, HOC is multidimensional constructs in which, every dimension of a construct, captures a fractional part of the entire latent variables (Becker, et al., 2012).

A higher-order construct (HOC) is a form of complex modeling process involving the testing of second-order model's structures, which in its self, comprises two other layers of the first-order latent variables and the manifest indicators (Ringle et al., 2012; Wetzels, et al., 2009). In essence, it is a technique of structural modeling, which involves the summarizing of the first-order (i.e., lower-order) into one single multidimensional second-order (higher-order) constructs, otherwise known as composite variable (Rowe, 2002).

However, the most common argument commonly advanced by the proponents of higher-order constructs is that, this modeling technique provides an avenue for theoretical parsimony, by bringing about a reduction of in model's complexity (Hair et al., 2014; Becker, et al., 2012). Hence, this modeling structure allows the researchers to delineate and assess the contribution of every indicator in the hierarchy, thereby avoiding a situation where all indicators are lumped together into one single construct, which can result into a situation of an incomplete explication of the resultant variables (Gerbing, Hamilton, & Freeman, 1994).

HOC modeling specifies the relationships among the dimensions of a construct, and how these dimensions, relates to the overall construct. Assessing this relationship has become a central

issue in the field of entrepreneurship, not only for theory building, but also in the operationalization of these conceptualizations for the purpose of theory testing (Stetz, et al., 2000). Hence, Law, Wong, and Mobley (1998) once assert that, it is only when the interrelations among the dimensions and between a multidimensional construct and its sub-dimensions are clearly specified, can a researcher derive the overall and parsimonious conclusions of the role of the multidimensional construct in its nomological network. Thus, this study strives at specifying how the dimensions of each construct used in the study relates to each other on one hand, and how they relate to the overall construct on the other hand; and by so doing, providing a way of operationalizing these differential conceptualizations.

However, while there exists no consensus regarding the terminology for hierarchical latent variable models (Wetzel, et al., 2009), four model's types have become discernible in PLS-SEM literature (Becker et al., 2012). These models are hinged on basis of the relationship between the second-order (constructs) and first-order (sub-constructs) on one hand, and between the first-order (sub-constructs) and its manifest indicators on the other hand (Ringle et al., 2014; Jarvis et al., 2003).

From the above forms of relationships, four basic modeling types emerged. These are namely, (a) reflective-reflective (i.e., type I model), (b) reflective-formative (i.e., type II model), (c) formative-reflective (i.e., type III model), and (d) formative-formative (i.e., type IV model). In addition to this distinction between construct's modeling, three basic techniques of parameter estimate of hierarchical latent variable modeling using the PLS-SEM, have also been identified. These parameter estimators are: (a) repeated indicator approach, (b) two stage approach, and (c) hybrid approach (Becker, et al., 2012).

Therefore, it would be of interest to note that this present study was modeled along the reflective-formative (i.e., Type II) of the higher-order construct (HOC) modeling. In this case, the indicators/items are reflective of the first-order construct, while the first-order constructs in turn, serves as the formative of the second-order construct (Becker, et al., 2012; Ringle, et al., 2012; Wetzels, et al., 2009; Jarvis, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2003).

In addition to the above listed types of hierarchical modeling structures, this study also estimates the model's parameters using the repeated-indicator approach (Becker, et al., 2012). This form of parameter estimate is that in which the second-order latent variable is constructed by specifying a latent variable, which represents all the manifest variables of the underlying first-order variables (Lohmöller, 1989; Wold, 1982).

This approach to parameter estimate is generally the most preferred PLS-SEM modeling technique used in evaluating a reflective-formative (type II) in the hierarchical latent variable modeling (Becker et al., 2012). Part of the advantages of this modeling technique derives from its ability to, simultaneously estimate all the constructs at once. This makes it possible to accommodate the entire nomological networks of latent variables in order to prevent a situation of interpretational confounding (Hair et al., 2014; Becker, et al., 2012) which often occurs, where the empirical meaning of the latent construct differs from its intended meaning from the researcher's point of view (Bainter & Bollen, 2014; Burt, 1976).

The complex nature of this modeling structure therefore gives rise to a reflective-formative type II (Becker et al., 2012) model of higher-order construct. Hence, studying of a construct of this nature and its measurement indicators, calls for an application of a PLS-SEM (Barclay, Higgins, & Thompson, 1995).

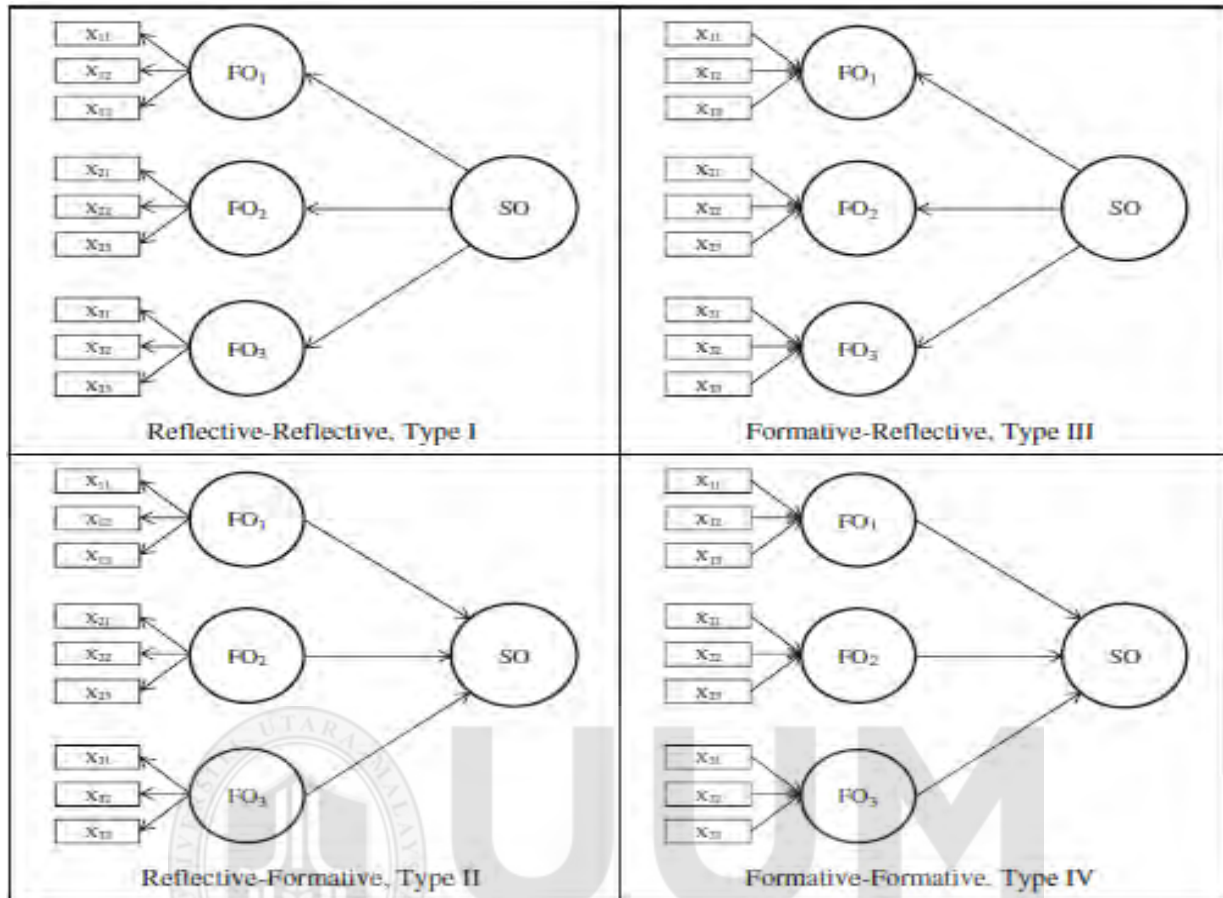


Figure 5.4

The four types of hierarchical latent variable model

Source: Becker, et al., 2012

5.8.3 The Assessment of the Structural Model (Inner Model)

An assessment of a structural model (inner model) has to do with examining the dependent relationships that connect the exogenous and endogenous latent constructs in a hypothetical model developed for a study. In essence, a structural model involves examining the predictive capabilities of a model, as well as determining the relationships existing among the constructs (Hair et al., 2014). In this study, the structural model comprises the women entrepreneurs' business success as the endogenous variable, while the exogenous variables are the entrepreneurial competencies, and entrepreneurial orientation, with culture, which is another

exogenous variable, serving as the moderator. However, to achieve these objectives, the basic criteria used in assessing structural model (inner model) in PLS-SEM were adopted.

5.8.3.1 Assessing the Collinearity of the Structural model

The assessment of collinearity in a structural model takes after the steps involved, in evaluating the collinearity of formative measurement model, where every latent construct in the model is assess for its variance-inflated factor (VIF). Thus, in a structural model, every exogenous latent variable is assessed separately for its collinearity by determining its variance inflated factor (VIF). Similar to the formative measurement model, a VIF values of above the levels of 3.3 (Diamantopoulous & Siguaw (2006) or 5.0 (Hair et al., 2014) among the exogenous variables (predictor constructs) in the structural model, signifies the presence of collinearity among the latent variable/constructs (Hair et al., 2014). However, the VIF values of the exogenous variables, as shown in the Table 5.14 below indicates that collinearity is not an issue in this present study, as all the obtained values fall below the threshold values (See, Diamantopoulous & Siguaw, 2006; Hair et al., 2014).

Table 5.14

Collinearity Assessment of the Formative Constructs (VIF)

CUL	1.882
ECO	2.009
EOR	2.017

Note: CUL = Culture, ECO = Entrepreneurial competencies, EOR = Entrepreneurial orientation

Following the assessment of collinearity issues among the exogenous constructs, which was found not to be an issue in this present study, the researcher proceeds to determine the significance of the path coefficient, the level of the R-square (R^2) values, assessment of the effect-size (f^2) sizes and, the predictive relevance (Q^2) of the structural model.

However, it needs be reiterated that the objectives of this study is to examine the direct relationships between the two independent variables (IVs) and dependent variable (DV), as well as the moderating effect of the culture between the two IVs on the DV. Hence, two different structural modeling structures were considered for the analysis. While the first model examines the direct relationships between the constructs in the model, the second model examines the interaction effects of the moderator on the relationship between exogenous and endogenous latent constructs (see Hair *et al.*, 2014; Barron & Kenny, 1986).

5.8.3.2 Structural Model Path Coefficients Assessment

In PLS-SEM, the amount of variance in the construct under study, which is explained by a model, is represented by the R^2 . In this present study, the path coefficient analysis was carried out by using of a standard bootstrapping procedure to test the hypothesized direct relationships between the exogenous and endogenous latent constructs. Consistent with Chin (1998a), a standard bootstrapping procedure, which uses a number of 5,000 samples for 361 cases were employed to assess the significance of the path coefficient of the relationships in this study. This procedure generates the beta value, t-statistics, standard errors, and the statistical significance of the path coefficient for the relationships (Hair, et al., 2014; Henseler, et al., 2009).

Table 5.15 below illustrates the assessment outcome of the path coefficient after the bootstrapping. The relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneurs' business success was found to be positively significant ($\beta=0.512$, $t=8.239$, $p<0.01$). This signifies that the hypothesized relationship between the two constructs was supported. On the other hand, the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' business success was found not to be significant ($\beta=0.062$, $t=0.922$, $p>0.10$).

This non-significance in t-statistics signifies that the hypothesized relationship between the two constructs, was not supported.



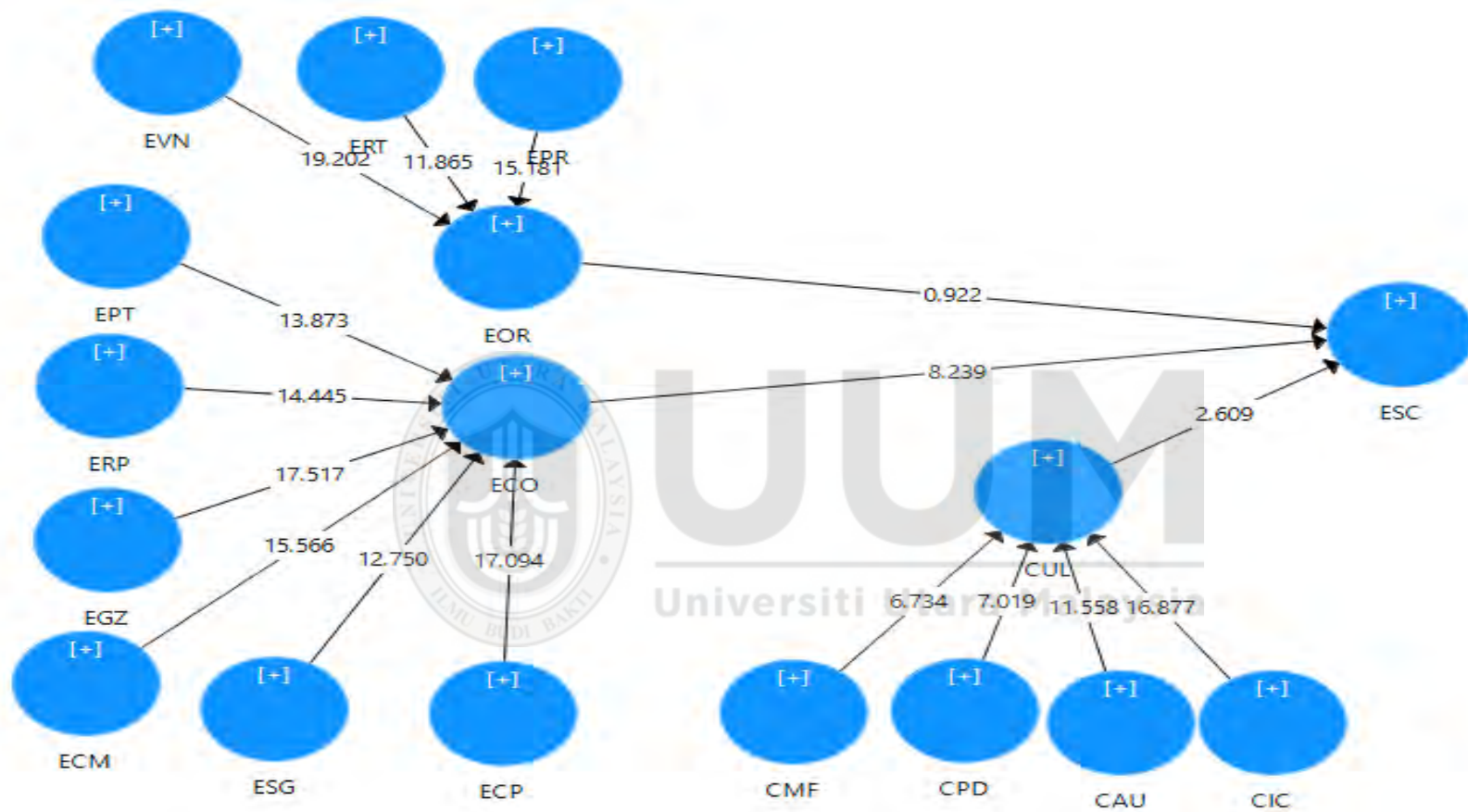


Figure 5.5
PLS Algorithm (Direct Relationship)

Table 5.15

Path coefficient Assessment of Direct Relationship

Hypothesis	Relationship	Direct Effect (β)	Standard Error	T-statistics	P value	Findings
H ₁	ECO -> ESC	0.512	0.062	8.239***	0.000	Supported
H ₂	EOR -> ESC	0.062	0.067	0.922	0.361	Not supported
H ₃	CUL -> ESC	-0.162	0.062	2.609***	0.005	Supported

Note: Significant *** $p < 0.01$. CUL = Culture, ECO = Entrepreneurial competencies, EOR = Entrepreneurial orientation, ESC = Women entrepreneurs' success.

From the onset, three of the hypotheses formulated for this study asserts that there is a significant relationship between the three exogenous variables and the endogenous variable. These hypotheses were stated as non-directional (i.e., 2-tail) hypotheses.

Hence, hypothesis 1 states that there is a significant relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneurs' success. Similarly, findings from the PLS-SEM analysis (Table 5.15 and Figure 5.5) shows a significant relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneurs' success ($\beta = 0.512$, $t = 8.239$, $p < 0.01$). This implies that hypothesis 1 is supported.

Hypothesis 2 postulated that there is a significant relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneurs' success. On the contrary, results from the PLS analysis (Table 5.15 and Figure 5.5), reveals that there is no significant relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' success ($\beta = .0062$, $t = 0.922$, $t = p > 0.1$). The implication of this is that hypothesis 2 was not significant, and was hence, not supported.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that there is a significant relationship between culture and women entrepreneurs' success. However, findings from the PLS analysis shown in (Table 5.15 and Figure 5.5) reveals a negative significant relationship between culture and women

entrepreneurs' success ($\beta = -0.162$, $t = 2.609$, $t = p < 0.01$). This indicates that hypothesis 3 was negatively supported.

5.8.3.3 Coefficient of Determination (R^2 Values)

The most widely used measure of evaluation in structural model is the coefficient of determination (R^2 value) of the endogenous latent constructs (Henseler et al., 2009). This coefficient is analogous to correlation coefficient. The coefficient depicts the predictive accuracy of a model and, it is being calculated as the squared correlation of the both actual and predicted values of endogenous construct (Hair et al., 2014). The R^2 presents the combined effects of the exogenous latent constructs on the endogenous latent construct. The R^2 coefficient represents the amount of variance in an endogenous construct that is explained by the exogenous constructs of the model. The values of the coefficient (R^2) always range between 0 and 1, with higher values signifying a high level of predictive accuracy (i.e., variance explained) (Hair et al., 2014).

The determination of the coefficient (R^2 values) in research often varies in relation to the model's complexity, or in relation to certain types of research or discipline (e.g. consumer behavior), where a value of 0.20 is considered higher (Hair et al., 2014). However, scholarly researchers are of the opinion that a value of 0.75 or above is desirable. Based on a rough rule of thumb, R^2 values of 0.75, 0.50 or 0.25 for endogenous latent construct have been described as substantial, moderate, or weak respectively (Ringle, Sarstedt, & Zimmermann, 2011). Similarly, Chin (1998a) has also suggested that, a R^2 values of 0.67, 0.33, or 0.19, in a PLS-SEM path modeling, as substantial, moderate and weak, respectively.

As shown in the Table 5.16 below, the total variance explained of the endogenous latent construct by the exogenous latent constructs of this study is 45%. Consistent with the recommendations of some scholars on coefficient of determination (R^2 value) of the relationship between exogenous and endogenous latent constructs (see, Ringle, et al., 2011, Henseler, et al., 2009 & Chin, 1998a), finding shows that the total variance explained on the women entrepreneurs' business success by the exogenous variables could be described as moderate.

Table 5.16
Coefficient of Determination (R^2)

Endogenous Construct	R-Squared Value (R^2)
Women Entrepreneurs' Success	0.450

5.8.3.4 Assessment of Effect Sizes (f^2) for Direct Relationships

An effect size (f^2) refers to the resultant changes that occurs in the R^2 , which is caused by the omission of a specific exogenous variable from a model. In other words, it is a way of examining the substantive impact, which a specific exogenous construct has on the endogenous construct (Gim, Desa, & Ramayah, 2015, Hair et al., 2014). In essence, effect size (f^2) serves as a practical guide of interpreting the relative importance of the relationship a specific exogenous variable has on the endogenous variable, in a given model (Preacher & Kelley, 2011).

Specifically, effect size (f^2) is calculated by determining the increase that occurs in the R^2 , relative to amount of variance of the endogenous latent construct that remains unexplained after estimating the PLS path model (Henseler, et al., 2009). This increase is achieved by firstly, estimating the exogenous latent variable to yield R^2 and secondly, re-specifying the structural model by omitting the exogenous latent construct to yield a new R^2 (Hair et al.,

2014). The differences in the two R^2 recorded from these two incidences, shows the effect of each exogenous latent construct in predicting the endogenous latent construct in a given model. Effect size (f^2) is expressed by the formula below (Hair et al., 2014; Callaghan, Wilson, Ringle, & Henseler, 2007; Cohen, 1988).

$$\text{Effect size: } f^2 = \frac{R^2_{\text{included}} - R^2_{\text{excluded}}}{1 - R^2_{\text{included}}}$$

Where R^2_{included} and R^2_{excluded} are the values of the R^2 of the endogenous latent construct when a particular exogenous latent constructed is either included or excluded from the model. Cohen (1988) classified effect size (f^2) values as: 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 as being small, medium, and large respectively.

Following this procedure, and in line with Cohen (1988) classifications of effect sizes, the magnitudes of the three exogenous variables in this model, as shown in Table 5.17 below can be interpreted as culture (small), entrepreneurial competencies (moderate) and entrepreneurial orientation (none). However, a “none” effect size as shown against EO-Entrepreneurs’ success relationship is a marginal value, which contributes less than the given threshold, and it does not mean that the construct is not important in the model. Its exclusion from the model would have significant consequence on the R^2 value, and may also, reduced the predictive ability of the model.

Table 5.17
Effect Sizes of the Latent Variables on Cohen’s (1988) Recommendation

Relationship	Effect size (f^2)	Magnitude
CUL→ESC	0.025	Small
ECO →ESC	0.238	Moderate
EOR →ESC	0.003	None

Note: CUL = Culture, ECO = Entrepreneurial competencies, EOR = Entrepreneurial orientation

5.8.3.5 Predictive relevance (Q^2) of the model

Having assessed the predictive accuracy of the model by evaluating the R^2 values of the path coefficient as well as calculating the effect sizes (f^2), which examine the specific impact of each exogenous variable on the endogenous construct, it is also noteworthy, for the researcher to examine the predictive relevance of the model. The predictive relevance of a model has to do with the accuracy of prediction of the indicators data points of the endogenous construct in a reflective measurement model. This prediction is often achieved by examining the Stone-Geisser's Q^2 value (Stone, 1974, Geisser, 1974). This Stone-Geisser's criterion, postulates that a model must be capable of predicting the indicators of the endogenous variables (Henseler et al., 2009).

In PLS-SEM, Stone-Geisser (Q^2) criterion is sometimes, used as a supplementary assessment of a model's goodness-of-fit (Duarte & Raposo, 2010). The Stone-Geisser (Q^2) criterion is measured through a blindfolding procedure to obtain a cross-validation redundancy. This blindfolding procedure is a form of sample re-use technique in which, every d th data point is omitted from the endogenous variable's indicators, with the remaining data points being used in the estimation of the parameters (Henseler, et al., 2009; Chin, 1998a). This form of sample re-use procedure, can alternatively be described as an iterative process, which continuously repeats itself until a point is reached, where every data point in the construct becomes omitted and the resultant model is then re-estimated. This iterative process makes the resultant values obtained from the iteration process becomes useful in predicting the omitted data points in the construct (Hair *et al.*, 2014).

It is however, worthy of note that, this blindfolding procedure can only be applied on the endogenous latent variables with reflective measurement indicators (Sattler, Völckner, Riediger & Ringle (2010), as well as on a single-item endogenous construct (Hair et al., 2014; Henseler et al., 2009). As an analogy to effect size (f^2), the relative effect of predictive relevance of an endogenous latent variable, using the Stone-Geisser's (Q^2) criterion, should be greater than zero. According to Henseler et al. (2009), Q^2 values of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35, have been classified, as small, medium and large, respectively.

In line with the above criterion of Henseler et al. (2009), this study employs the Smart PLS 3.0 (Ringle, Wende, & Will, 2005), to calculate the Stone-Geisser's Q^2 cross-validation redundancy, using the blindfolding technique (see, Table 5.18), to assess the predictive relevance of the endogenous variable (Hair *et al.*, 2014; Hair et al., 2013; Ringle *et al.*, 2012; Stone, 1974; Geisser, 1974). The resultant Q^2 value from cross-validation redundancy, as shown in Table 5.18 below, is greater than zero. Hence, the Q^2 values for this study, can be described as medium (Henseler et al., 2009). This indicates that the predictive relevance of entrepreneurial competencies and entrepreneurial orientation on women entrepreneurs' business success is moderate.

Table 5.18
Predictive Relevance for Direct Relationship (Q^2)

Constructs	SSO	SSE	$Q^2 (=1-SSE/SSO)$
ESC	1,805.00	1,432.02	0.207

Note: ESC = Women entrepreneurs' business success

5.9 The Importance-Performance Matrix Analysis (IPMA)

One common way of using the scores of the latent variable to extend the findings of PLS-SEM is by examining the importance-performance matrix analysis (IPMA). Thus, an IPMA analysis

is used in PLS-SEM to identify possible areas in a study that needs to be taking into cognizance and improved upon. Specifically, the IPMA analysis enables the researcher to identify which of the latent constructs exert relatively high importance or relatively low performance on the endogenous latent construct (Hock, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2010). This IPMA analysis is performed by assessing the relative importance (i.e., total effects) and the relative performance (i.e., index value) of the exogenous latent constructs, and then contrast these two values with that of the endogenous construct, with a view to determining areas for improvement. Results from IPMA analysis gives a managerial insight on ways of addressing and improving on areas that are identified with low performance and high importance (Hock et al., 2010).

In this study, the results of importance-performance matrix analysis, as shown in Table 5.19 below, reveals in order of magnitudes, the construct that exhibits high importance-performance influence on the criterion/dependent variable (i.e., women entrepreneurs' success). Thus, the variable that exhibits highest performances is the entrepreneurial competencies, with an index value of 79.611, and total effect of 0.575. The next construct in this order is entrepreneurial orientation, which has a performance index value of 74.209 and total effect of 0.062, with the least in the analysis being culture, with a performance index value of 27.317, and a negative effect value of -0.166. The diagrammatical interpretation of this importance-performance matrix analysis is presented in the IPMA map, which is shown in Figure 5.6 below.

Table 5.19

Importance-Performance Matrix Analysis

Latent Constructs	Total Effect (Importance)	Index value (Performances)
CUL	-0.166	27.317
ECO	0.575	79.611
EOR	0.062	74.209

Note: CUL = Culture, ECO = Entrepreneurial competencies, EOR = Entrepreneurial orientation

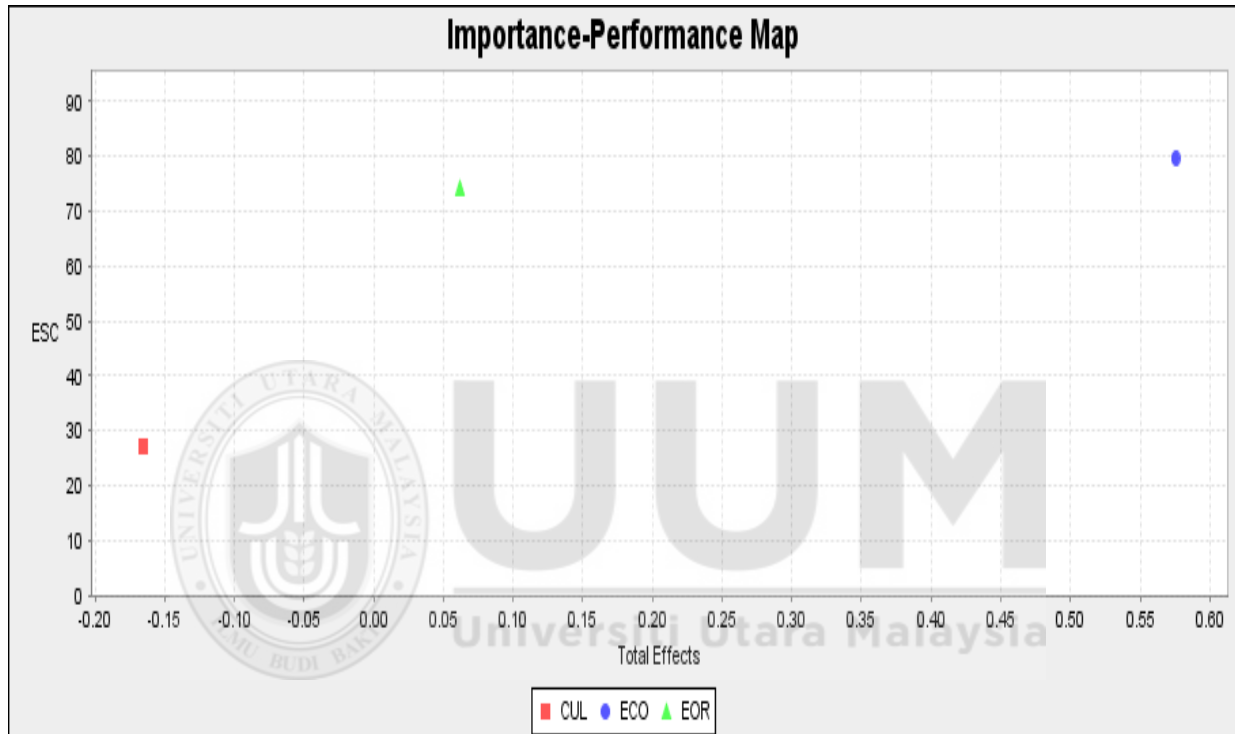


Figure 5.6

IPMA Results of ESC as the Target Construct

Note: CUL (Culture), ECO (Entrepreneurial Competencies), and EOR (Entrepreneurial Orientation)

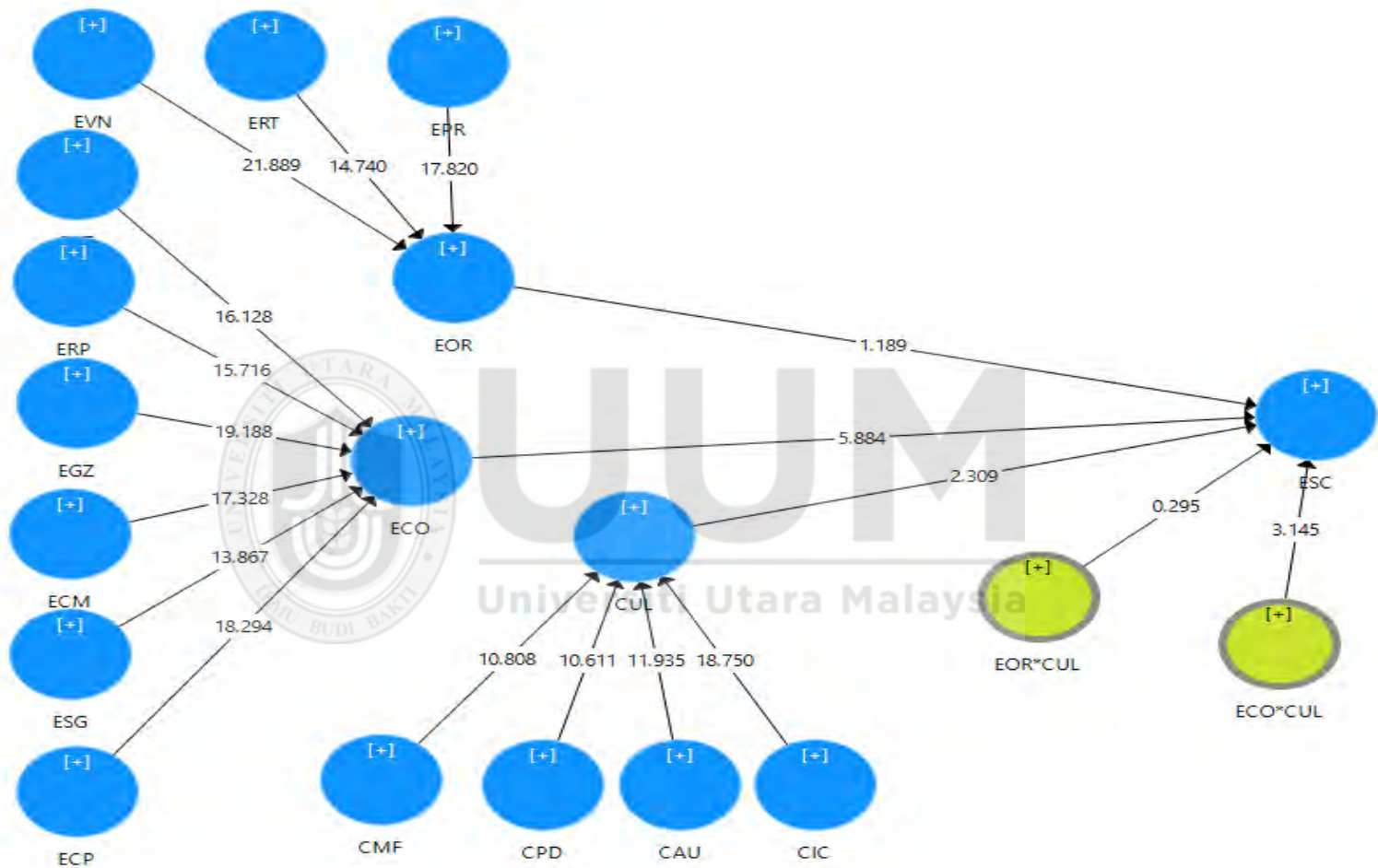


Figure 5.7
Moderating Effect of Culture on Entrepreneurial Competencies and Entrepreneurial Orientation on Entrepreneurial Success

5.9 Assessing the Moderating Effects of Culture

In assessing the moderating effect of culture on the relationship between the two exogenous variables (i.e., entrepreneurial competencies and entrepreneurial orientation), on endogenous construct (i.e., women entrepreneurs' business success), this study employs the repeated indicator approach of estimating hierarchical latent variable with a two-stage moderation approach (Henseler & Fassott, 2010). This two-stage moderation approach in PLS-SEM was considered appropriate because the moderator variable (i.e., culture) was modeled as a formative construct (see, Wahjudi, et al., 2016; Azam, 2015; Henseler & Fassott, 2010).

Table 5.20 below shows the results of these interactions.

Table 5.20
Path Coefficient of Moderating Relationship

Hypothesis	Relationship	Direct Effect (β)	Standard Error	T-statistics	P-values	Findings
H ₄	ECO*CUL → ESC	0.162	0.052	3.131***	0.001	Supported
H ₅	EOR*CUL → ESC	-0.019	0.064	0.296	0.383	Not supported

Note: Significant ***p<0.01. ECO = Entrepreneurial competencies, EOR = Entrepreneurial orientation, CUL = Culture, ESC = Women entrepreneurs' success

Hypothesis 3 of this study postulated that culture moderates the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and the women entrepreneurs' business success. Thus, the result of the interaction effect of culture on the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women business success, as shown in Table 5.20 and Figure 5.8, was found to be positively significant ($\beta = 0.162$, $t = 3.131$, $p = 0.001$). This signifies that the hypothesized relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and culture on women entrepreneurs' business success was supported at ($p < 0.001$) level of significance.

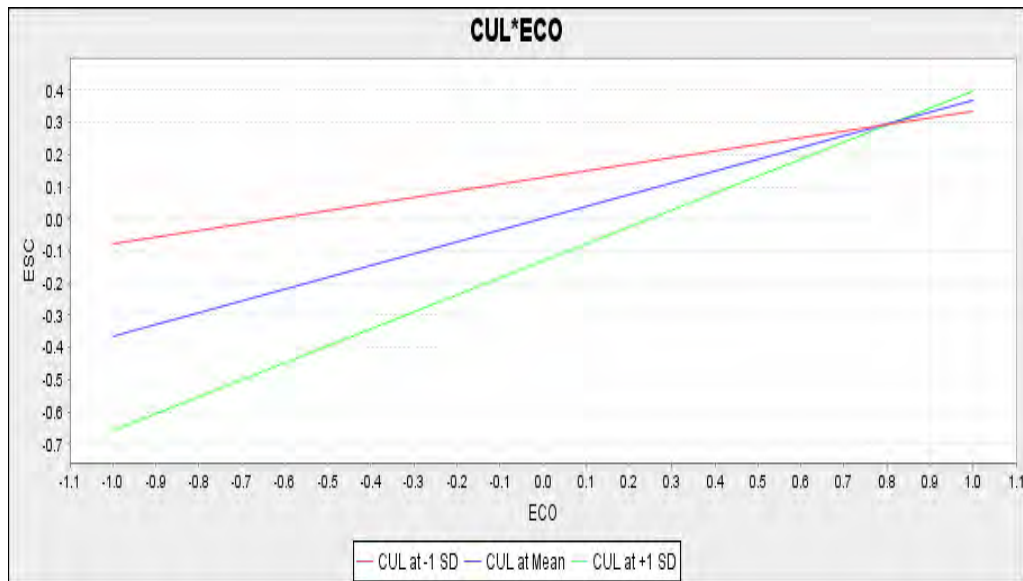


Figure 5.8
Interaction Effect of Culture and Entrepreneurial Competencies on Women Entrepreneurs Business Success

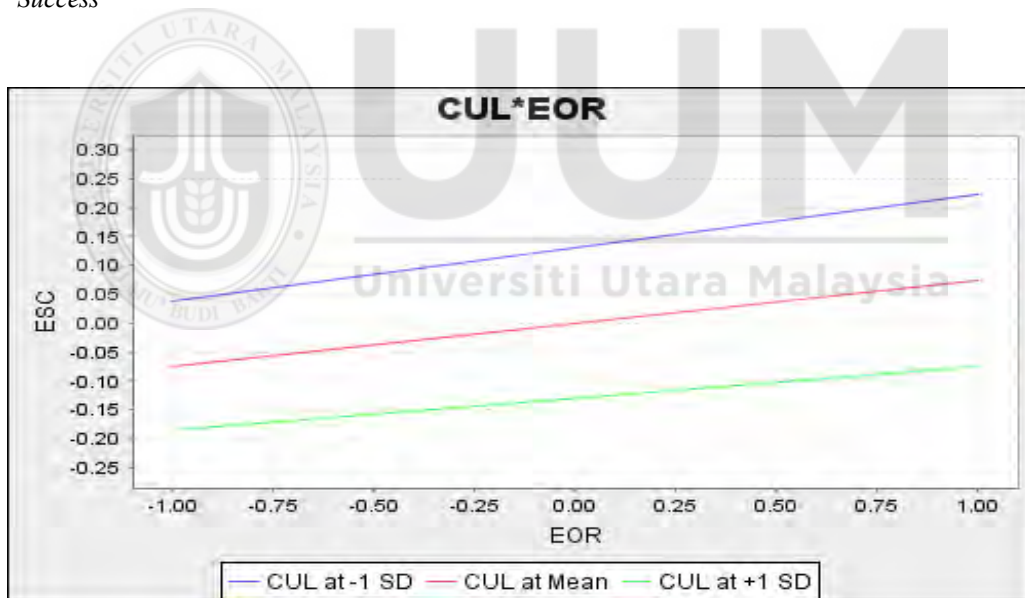


Figure 5.9
Interaction Effect of Culture and Entrepreneurial orientation on Women Entrepreneurs Business Success.

Hypothesis 5 of the study postulates that culture moderates the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' success. However, the result of the interaction effects between culture and entrepreneurial orientation on women

entrepreneurs' business success, as shown in Table 5.20, and Figure 5.9, indicates that the interaction between culture and entrepreneurial orientation on women entrepreneurs' success is negative ($\beta = -0.019$, $t = 0.296$, $p = 0.383$). This implies that the hypothesised relationship between culture and entrepreneurial orientation is negatively significant. Hence, culture does not moderate between individual entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' success.

5.10 Assessing the Strength of the Moderating Effects

Two of the other hypotheses formulated for this study were based on the influence of the moderator on the independent variables. The first hypothesis states that culture moderates the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneur's business success, and the second one states that culture moderates the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneur's business success. The effects of these interactions between the moderator and the two constructs, have been presented and discussed in the preceding sections.

However, in order to assess the strength of the moderator (i.e., culture) on the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and entrepreneurial orientation, on the entrepreneur's business success, the Cohen (1988) effect size (f) needs to be calculated. This exercise can be achieved by comparing the R^2 value of the main effect on model with that of the full model, which incorporates the moderator and the exogenous variables (Henseler, & Fassott, 2010). Similar to effect-size (f^2), the moderating effects is expressed by the formula below (Henseler & Fassott, 2010; Cohen, 1988).

$$\text{Effect size: } f^2 = \frac{R^2 \text{ model with moderator} - R^2 \text{ model without moderator}}{1 - R^2 \text{ model with moderator}}$$

In line with Henseler and Fassott (2010) and Cohen (1988), a moderating effect that has the following effect-sizes (f^2) 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35, can be classified as weak, moderate, and strong respectively. However, a low effect-size (f^2) does not imply that the moderator's effect size is negligible. It is however, important to note that, in an extreme moderating condition, a negligible interaction can be meaningful especially when the resulted changes in beta are meaningful (Cohen et al., 2003)

Consistent with Henseler and Fassott's (2010), and Cohen's (1988) rule of thumb, for determining the strength of moderating effect, the Table 5.21 below shows that the moderating effect size of culture on the exogenous variables is 0.055. These values imply that the moderating effect size is small.

Table 5.21
Strength of the Moderating Effects Based on Henseler and Fassott's (2010) and Cohen's (1988) and Guidelines

Endogenous Latent Construct	R-squared		f-squared	Moderating Effect size
	Included	Excluded		
Women Entrepreneurs' Success	0.473	0.444	0.055	Small

5.11 Summary of the Findings

Findings from the preceding analysis of data, using PLS-SEM 3.0, for both the direct relationship and moderating effect of culture on these variables, were conducted by using the bootstrapping procedures, to test the hypotheses formulated for the study. In the final analysis, out of the four hypotheses formulated for this study, two of them were supported, while the other two were not supported. The summary of these hypotheses was presented in the Table 5.22, shown below.

Table 5.22

Summary of hypotheses Testing

Hypotheses	Relationship	Direct Effect (β)	Standard Error	T-statistics	P-values	Findings
H ₁	ECO -> ESC	0.512	0.062	8.239	0.000	Supported
H ₂	EOR -> ESC	0.062	0.067	0.922	0.361	Not supported
H ₃	CUL -> ESC	-0.162	0.062	2.609***	0.005	Supported
H ₄	ECO*CUL -> ESC	0.162	0.052	3.131	0.001	Supported
H ₅	EOR*CUL -> ESC	-0.019	0.064	0.296	0.383	Not supported

5.12 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter presents step-by-step reports of the findings obtained from the quantitative data analysis processes, which eventually culminate into the testing of the formulated hypotheses for the study. It begins with the preliminary data treatment and provides scholarly justifications for every procedure taken in the course of the entire processes of data analysis. It went further to elaborate on the choice of PLS-SEM as the preferred statistical tools analysis for the study.

Furthermore, the chapter provides justifications for the modeling of the latent constructs at the higher level of abstraction, and discusses the sequences involved in evaluating the measurement in the model. The high point of the analysis is the measurement of the inner (structural) model, which culminates into the testing of the four hypotheses formulated for the study with a view to determining their level of significance. Two of these formulated hypotheses were found to be significant and supported, while the other two were found to be insignificant, and were not supported. The chapter concludes by assessing the strength of the moderator on the endogenous variables, which was found to be small.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

The focus of this chapter is on the discussions of the findings that were presented in the preceding chapter, the implications of these finding to the study, and finally, the conclusions. To achieve these objectives, the chapter was organized into the following sections. Firstly, section one makes a recapitulation of the research findings, and this was followed by section two, which discusses on the research findings of the study, in the light of the research questions and objectives, by drawing inferences from previous findings of other researchers. This was followed by discussing the underpinning theories of the study.

However, section three discusses the theoretical, methodological, and practical implications of the studies with respect to the contributions of the study to body of knowledge, and in the context of the research setting. Section four, highlights on the research limitations of the study, and on the basis of this, suggestions for future research directions were proffered. The chapter finally ends with the conclusions.

6.2 Recapitulations of the Research findings

The main thrust of this study is to make an inquisition into the Nigerian entrepreneurial scene, specifically, that of the women micro-entrepreneurs, which has been over the years, been characterized by high rate of mortality, with a view to proffer the dual human capabilities of entrepreneurial competencies and entrepreneurial orientation as a panacea using culture as the moderator.

However, an enquiry into the Nigeria entrepreneurial scene has revealed that the sector is characterized by high rate of business mortality (Ibru, 2013). This mortality rate has mostly, been on the increase especially, with respect of women micro-entrepreneurs, whose role in business is to help cushion the incidence of high poverty rate on the family households. Women entrepreneurs provide an alternative source of income for the family, in addition to their efforts of generating employment for themselves and others, creating wealth, and contributing to the economic growth of the country.

However, several factors have been reported to have marred the realization of these lofty roles of women, which culminated into the high rate of failure that has been frequently witnessed, with the human factors aspect of the problem bounded on the entrepreneur itself, who is the owner manager of their respective businesses.

With a focus on women entrepreneurs as its unit of analysis, this study has proffered the dual human capabilities of entrepreneurial competencies and entrepreneurial orientation as a panacea to prevent the high rate of businesses failure that characterized women owned business in Nigeria by providing answers to following research questions:

1. Is there a significant relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneurs' business success?
2. Is there a significant relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' business success?
3. Is there a significant relationship between culture and women entrepreneurs' business success?

4. Does culture moderate the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneurs' business success?
5. Does culture moderate the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' business success?

Emanating from these research questions are five different research hypotheses. To test these hypotheses, data were collected from 361 women micro-entrepreneurs, who are owners/managers of their respective businesses, through the process of survey research, using questionnaire as the instrument of the study. From the analysis of the data collected through the distributed questionnaires, the five postulated hypotheses of the study were tested. Three of these hypotheses tested the direct relationship between the exogenous variables and the endogenous variable, while the other two test the moderating effect of culture on this relationship.

However, findings from the analysis of PLS-SEM revealed that a significant and positive relationship exists between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneur's success, and that culture also, moderates the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneur's success (see Table 5.15 and 5.20). Consequently, the relationship between culture and women entrepreneurs' success was found to be negative and significant (see Table 5.15). In contrast to these three significant hypotheses are the other two, which hypothesized on the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and culture as a moderator of these relationship on women entrepreneur's success.

The relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' success was not found to be significant, and neither was culture able to moderate the

relationship between the two constructs (see table 5.15 and 5.20). Taken together, only three of these formulated hypotheses were found to be significant and supported, while the other two were not significant and were thus, not supported.

6.3 Discussion of Results

This section presents the findings obtained from the study, with respect to the research questions and objectives that were developed for the study. The findings were discussed in the light of the underpinning theories and reports of findings obtained from previous literature. The following sub-sections that follows are therefore, fashioned out in line with the relevant research questions of this study.

6.3.1 The Dual Entrepreneurial Capabilities

At the small or micro level of business operations, business success has often been conceptualized as the entrepreneur's ability to survive and sustain the business (Lussier & Pfeifer, 2001). Although, the conventional measure of business success dwells more on the use of traditional (financial) or economic measures of sales, revenue, profitability, employment, and growth (Walker & Brown, 2004; Simpson et al., 2004; Greenbank, 2001). However, the use of these measures mainly focused on the monetary rewards that goes with operating business activities and fails to accurately, capture the intrinsic rewards that goes with running a business by the entrepreneurs (Jennings & Beaver, 1997).

However, studies in extant literature have shown that it is this intrinsic reward that often time, propels women into engaging in entrepreneurship (Alstete, 2008; Walker & Brown, 2004; Brush & Hisrich, 2000). This account for the disparity in the gender

conception of term success in business. Whereas the external standards of gaining recognition for accomplishment and prestige, often serves as the benchmark for the attainment of success in business by the male entrepreneurs, the women conception of success were based on the internal assessment of their being able to accomplish what they set out to achieve (Burger, 2008; Cliff, 1998). This women's conception of success in business mainly focused on the assessment of the psychological rewards that goes with establishing and running of businesses (Laguna et al., 2012).

Nevertheless, the main thrust of these psychological indicators, which forms the main thrust of assessing women's business success, focused on the non-financial measures of success. These non-financial indicators of business success hinged on the importance of the entrepreneur's personal goals, motivation, and aspirations (Gorgievski, et al., 2011; Dej, 2010). The non-financial measure assumes that the entrepreneur's achievement of these valued outcomes, (i.e., autonomy, independence, personal initiative, or work-family interface) are the ultimate sources of women entrepreneurs' success in business (Laguna, et al., 2012). It is therefore, these psychological success indicators, which, though subjective like the other economic or traditional financial measures, that form the basis of assessing women entrepreneurs' success in business. It was these non-financial measures of business success that was adopted in this present study.

6.3.1.1 The relationship between Entrepreneurial Competencies and Women Entrepreneurs' Success

The first research question of this study borders on knowing if the direct relationship exists between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneur's

success. Consistent with this research question is the objective of the research, which also seeks to examine the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneur's success.

Entrepreneurial competencies have been defined as the “underlying characteristics such as generic specific knowledge, motives, traits, self-images, social roles, and skills which result in venture birth, survival, and/or growth” (Bird, 1995). As identified by Man et al. (2002), it is higher-level individual characteristics that encompasses personality traits, knowledge, and skills, which are seen as the total personal ability of the entrepreneur to perform specific job role successfully.

Consistently, the results of the analysis of PLS path modeling reveal a significant positive relationship between the entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneur's success ($\beta = 0.512$, $t = 8.239$, $p < 0.001$). This result indicates that the hypothesized relationship was supported at ($p < 0.001$) level of significance. Specifically, this construct (i.e., entrepreneurial competencies) has an effect size (f^2) of 0.238, which indicates that its relationship on the dependent variable (i.e., women entrepreneurs' success) is moderate (Cohen, 1988). This result is an indication that the effect of entrepreneurial competencies on the women entrepreneur's business success was very strong. That is, the more competent an entrepreneur is, the higher the level of success would be.

By implication, when entrepreneurs possess high entrepreneurial competencies (strategic, organizing, relationship, commitment, opportunity, and conceptual), there is every tendency for their success level to increase. In Nigeria context, women entrepreneurs in the context of this study make use of their competencies of strategic,

organizing, relationship, commitment, opportunity, and conceptual to achieve high level of success in their businesses.

Empirically, the significant positive relationship reported between entrepreneurial competencies and the women entrepreneur's success, is consistent with the findings of studies conducted by scholars such as, Barazandeh et al (2015), Sanchez (2012), Marina and Solesvik (2012), Chandler and Hanks (1994). In all these studies, a significant positive relationship was reported to exist between entrepreneurial competencies and business success.

In a similar manner, the study confirms the findings of Ahmad et al. (2010), where entrepreneurial competencies were found to strongly predict business success in a hostile or dynamic business environment. This finding is also consistent with the study of Suhaimi (2018), where entrepreneurial competencies impact positively on women micro-entrepreneurs in the six districts of Kelanta, Malaysia, and that of Mamun (2016) on women entrepreneurs under the Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia (AIM) credit scheme in Malaysia.

Theoretically, this finding is consistent with the proposition of the micro-foundation perspective of the Resource-Based View (Barney, Ketchen Jr, & Wright, 2011; Coff & Kryscynski, 2011; Felin & Foss, 2009). This theory highlight the critical role of human capital resource in creating and sustaining competitive business advantage (Abell, et al., 2008; Felin & Hesterly, 2007; Teece, 2007), and it also, confirms the strength of this human resource and capabilities (i.e., individual knowledge, skills, and abilities) on the success of women business entrepreneurs (Coff & Kryscynski, 2011) in the context of this study.

Additionally, the human capital resource has been found to serve as a great source of sustained competitive advantage for the business (Barney, 1991). Hence, the calls to drill down into the micro-foundations of resources and capabilities for a better understanding of this critical role of the entrepreneurs in creating a sustained competitive advantage for the firm (Abell, Felin, & Foss, 2008; Teece, 2007; Felin & Hesterly, 2007).

In view of this, the study confirms the notion that entrepreneurs who are high in human capital resource (i.e., entrepreneurial competencies) stands a better chance of creating resources and capabilities that are rare, valuable, very difficult to imitate, and non-substitutable (Hall, 1993; Barney, 1991). These resources and capabilities in turns, result in the attainment of business success by the women entrepreneurs.

Conclusively, from the theoretical perspective and empirical evidences of previous researchers, this study has further substantiated the theoretical and empirical link between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneurs' business success in the northwest geo-political zone of Nigeria.

6.3.1.2 The Relationship between Entrepreneurial Orientation and Women Entrepreneurs' Success

The second research question of this study seeks to know if a significant relationship exists between entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' success. This is however, correspond with the second objective of the research, which seeks to examine the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' business success.

Entrepreneurial orientation refers to an individual, groups or organization's disposition towards risk taking, proactiveness and innovativeness (Covin & Slevin, 1989). This study conceptualizes entrepreneurial orientation as an individual level strategic behavior in terms of the willingness to take risks, innovate, and be proactive towards leading an organization (Bolton, 2012).

Therefore, drawing an inference from the above stated objective, the second hypothesis of the study postulates that there is a significant relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' success. Contrary to our expectation, this postulated hypothesis was not supported by the findings of the results as depicted in the analysis of PLS-SEM path modeling of the direct relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' success ($\beta = 0.062$, $t = 0.922$, $p < 0.361$). This result shows that the relationship was not significant (i.e., $p > 0.10$), and therefore, the hypothesis was not supported. Specifically, the effect size (f^2) of the EO on the dependent variable is 0.003 (see Table 5.17). This finding indicates that the composite variable of entrepreneurial orientation (i.e., proactiveness, innovation and risk taking) has a very negligible significant effect on the women entrepreneurs' success because low individual entrepreneurial orientation of the respondent have resulted in low entrepreneurs' success.

This finding has by implication, shown that if women entrepreneurs possess low entrepreneurial orientation (i.e., proactiveness, innovativeness, and risk taking), there is the tendency for their entrepreneurial success to decline. For example, in the context of Nigeria, the various government support schemes and programmes, such

as Better Life for Rural Women (BLRW), Family Economic Advancement Programme (FEAP), National Directorate of Employment (NDE) among others, have failed to increase the level individual entrepreneurial orientation among the women micro-entrepreneurs, because some of them have failed to embrace the skill acquisition and training programmes, provided by these schemes.

Additionally, the non-significance of individual entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' success may have resulted from the failure of these women entrepreneurs to access the entrepreneurial services offered by other auxiliary government agencies such as, small and medium enterprise development agency of Nigeria (SMEDAN), National Directorate of Employment (NDE), among others. However, this failure of the entrepreneurs to fully utilize the services of these institutions may have been responsible for the low rate of success recorded among women entrepreneurs in the northwest Nigeria. Empirically, entrepreneurs with low level of individual entrepreneurial orientation have been reported to have the tendencies of failing in their business (Auer & Ritter, 2006).

Another plausible explanation for the non-significance the EO-women entrepreneurs' business success relationship may be due to differences in the content and context under which the study was conducted. Majority of the previous studies on EO – performance relationship which shows significant and positive relationship, were conducted at firm level of analysis, and in developed countries, whereas, this study was conducted at the individual level of entrepreneurial orientation, and in the context of Nigeria, which is a developing country.

Consequently, the non-significance of the hypothesis may also, have resulted from the fact that majority of the women micro-entrepreneurs in the context of this study, were found to be among “necessity-driven” entrepreneurs whose involvement in entrepreneurial activities have mainly resulted from the “push-factors”. These sets of entrepreneurs have been found to engage in entrepreneurial activities out of their need to survive, due to their inability to secure paid job, or may have been made redundant from their previous jobs (Irene, 2015). This group of entrepreneurs may lack the requisite entrepreneurial skills of proactiveness, risk taking and innovativeness (Bolton & Lane, 2012; Covin & Slevin, 1989), which serves as the essential ingredients of a successful entrepreneurship (Alekhue, 2014).

In contrast to the above group of entrepreneurs are the “opportunity-driven” entrepreneurs who engage in entrepreneurial activities as a result of the “push-factors” which the environment, in which they live was able to present (Bijaoui, 2012; Giacomini, et al., 2011; Orhan & Scott, 2001). Hence, this group of entrepreneurs are able to identify opportunities in the environment and then go ahead to fill the gap (Irene, 2015).

6.3.2 The Relationship between Culture and Women Entrepreneurs’ Success

The third research question of this study seeks to know the relationship exists between culture and women entrepreneurs’ success. This is however, consistent with the third objective of the research, which seeks to examine the relationship between culture and women entrepreneurs’ success.

Culture has been defined as the collective programming of the mind, which distinguished members of one group or a category of people from another (Hofstede, 2001). It has been defined at the individual level as the sum total of shared learned beliefs, norms, customs and values, which individuals acquired through the process of long-term interactions with their fellow community members, society, and the environment, and which then guides individuals and groups behavior in the society (Azam, 2015). Culture is conceptually operationalized at the individual level of analysis, as a reflection of values and practices exemplified by entrepreneurs in their respective businesses (Frese, 2006).

Findings from the PLS-SEM direct relationship between culture and women entrepreneurs' success reveals that culture has a negative and significance relationship with women entrepreneurs' success ($\beta = -0.162$, $t = 2.609$, $t = p < 0.001$). This finding implies that culture does not improve or lead to women entrepreneur success. Practically, and similar to what obtains in Arab countries, especially in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC), women in northern Nigeria are faced with a number of socio-cultural norms which inhibits or constrained their level of involvement in entrepreneurial activities.

In this geographical enclave, the role of women is, to a large extent, influenced by cultural norms and tradition of the society. For instance, women are restricted from engaging in open conversation with any member of the opposite gender who are not member of their kin. Consequently, their movement are restricted to the confine of their homes, as they are not allowed to be seen in public places alone. These cultural restrictions have prevented them from having open interactions with other

entrepreneurs, thereby limiting their access to business mentoring, networking, and financial literacy.

However, this deep-seated socio-cultural norms and tradition has makes it difficult for the women, in this part of the country, to fully harness and actualize their entrepreneurial potential, and still be able to meet up with the responsibilities and demands placed on them by their family (Preiss & McCrohan, 2006).

6.3.3 Moderating Effect of Culture on the Relationship between Entrepreneurial Competencies and Women Entrepreneurs' Business Success

The fourth research question of this study focused on the moderating effect of culture on the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies, and women entrepreneurs' success in the northwestern Nigeria. Consistent with this is the fourth objective of the study, which aims at determining the moderating effect of culture on the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneurs' success in the northwestern Nigeria. Emerging from this objective therefore, the study hypothesized that culture moderates the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneurs' business success.

Consistent with this hypothesis, the results of the PLS-SEM path modeling have shown that culture moderates the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneurs' success. This finding was depicted by the PLS-SEM path modeling results, which shows that the hypothesis was positive and significant ($\beta = 0.162$, $t = 3.131$, $p < 0.001$), which indicates that the hypothesis was supported at $p < 0.001$ level of significance (see Table 5.20).

Practically, this study shows that culture strengthened the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and success of women entrepreneurs. This findings by implication, shows that women entrepreneurs in the context of this study, possesses high level of culture orientation (femininity, collectivism, power distant and uncertainty avoidance) and this has increased the level of the entrepreneurial competencies among the women entrepreneurs which has resulted into their successes.

Empirically, this result finds support for this finding in some existing literature, where culture has been used to moderate the relationship among variables to achieve success in business. One of such findings is evidenced in a study conducted by Brinckmann et al. (2010), where different dimensions of culture, used as a moderator, have been shown to strengthen the relationship between business planning and business performance of the both newly and already established firms. Aligning the findings of this study with that of scholars such as (Kreiser, et al., 2013; Sheikh, et al., 2013; Brinckmann, et al., 2010), shows that the composite effects of culture on the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women business success have further strengthened the existing relationship between these constructs in the context of this study.

Furthermore, the Smith's et al. (2011) prediction of variations in the correlation between the managerial sources of guidance in relation to the Hofstede's dimensions of national culture also lends support this finding. This was shown in a cross-level analysis, which confirms the correlations between managerial guidance, by

specifying how each of managerial guidance has been moderated by each individual dimension of the Hofstede's (1980) models of culture.

Theoretically, the finding of this study is consistent with goal of contingency theory, which advocates on the proper alignment of the internal and external organizational factors to positively enhance business performance (Rauch et al., 2009) and have sustained competitive advantage over the competitors. This study has therefore, confirms the theory by showing how an external organizational factor (i.e., culture), used in this study as contingent variable, has positively strengthened the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneurs' business success.

Another related study that draws on contingency theory to achieve congruence through a proper alignment of the internal and external factors of the organization to achieve success in business can be found in the works of Patel and Conklin (2012). Patel and Conklin (2012) have used the contingency theory to examine how group culture and labor productivity result into high performance of the firm. Thus, with the group culture being used as the contextual variable, their finding shows a strong significant effect of culture on performance, as compared to when the contextual variable was not used.

Aligning the findings of this present study to that of Patel and Conklin (2012) shows that culture, as the contingent variable, has successfully interacted with entrepreneurial competencies by further strengthening the influence of entrepreneurial competencies on women entrepreneurs' business success in the northwest geo-political zone of Nigeria.

Consistent with inferences drawn from contingency theory and other empirical evidences. obtained from previous researches, it could be inferred that the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneurs' business success, was further strengthened by the achievement of congruence or fit, through a proper alignment of the human capability (i.e., entrepreneurial competencies), with the environmental factor (i.e., culture), which serves as the contingent variable, towards achieving an optimal business success.

6.3.4 Moderating Effect of Culture on the Relationship between Entrepreneurial Orientation and Women Entrepreneurs' Business Success

The fifth and last research question of the study seeks to know whether culture moderates the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' success. Consistent with this research question is the objective of the research, which focused on determining the moderating effects of culture on the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' success in the northwestern Nigeria. Emerging from this research objective, the study hypothesized that culture moderates the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' success.

Findings from the interaction effect between culture (i.e., moderator) and entrepreneurial orientation on women entrepreneurs' success, from the analysis of the PLS-SEM path modeling, was not significant. Specifically, the results of the PLS-SEM path modeling ($\beta = -0.019$; $t = 0.296$; $p = 0.383$), shows that the hypothesis was not supported (i.e., $p > 0.10$) (see Table 5.20). This indicates that culture did not

moderate the relationship individual entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' success.

This finding implies that the prevailing cultural practices in the northwestern Nigeria inhibits women from actively participating in economic ventures. This is as a result of the fact that their engagement in entrepreneurial activities is seen as secondary to their primary role of housekeepers. Although, existing Shari'a law gives women independent and full rights over the management of their businesses and finances, women as still consider as 'legal minor', whose interaction with the members of the public be mediated through intermediaries, preferably members of their male kin (Chamlou, Klapper, & Muzi, 2008).

Thus, the existing cultural norms and tradition of people in the northwestern part of Nigeria, prevents women from engaging in economic activities, probably to avoid their level exposure to members of the opposite gender or other societal ills that may promotes immorality. However, this act of confinement has invariably, retards the women economic potentials and thereby promoting male domination over female folks (Molemodile, 2000).

Additionally, drawing an inference from the results of the demographic characteristics of the respondents, it shows that girl child from this geo-political zone shy away from western education (see, Table 5.7). The non-moderation of culture of the relationship between individual entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' success could have result from the consequence of their low educational status. This because modern day businesses, requires the knowledge of entrepreneurial orientation to survive and flourish. This knowledge is possibly,

lacking among the women entrepreneurs in the context of the study, as the attitudes of the female folks towards education and their exposure to businesses was shown to be very poor. Notwithstanding the above plausible reasons for the non-moderation of culture, the entrepreneur's acquisition of education, though essential, is not a prerequisite for a successful venture creation, but it provide the individual entrepreneur with the requisite skills and training, which are very critical ingredients to successful entrepreneurship (Irene, 2016).

Consequently, the context under which the study was conducted upholds the patriarchal family system, in which the family structure is headed by men, who fends for the entire members of the families. Women in this family system are socialized to take up the responsibility of homemakers later in the future. Hence, their veering into entrepreneurial activities owes more to the "push-factors", which may either result from personal (i.e., widowed or divorce), or negative external factors (i.e., unemployment, wage gap, or professional segregation) (Sarri & Trihopoulou, 2005).

The opportunity driven entrepreneurs on the other hands are caused by the "pull-factors". Some of these factors includes the need for self fulfilment, self-accomplishment, independence or social status (Sarri & Trihopoulou, 2005). In relation to this study, the engagement of women in entrepreneurship is perceived more as more a necessity-driven venture, rather being than opportunity inclined (Bijaoui, 2012; Giacomini, et al., 2011; Orhan & Scott, 2001).

6.3.5 Implications of the Study

This present study has succeeded in expanding the frontier of knowledge by contributing to the existing stock of literature on women entrepreneurship, and specifically women entrepreneurs' success, through an examination of the dual capabilities of entrepreneurial competencies and entrepreneurial orientation on the women entrepreneurs' success in northwestern Nigeria. Concurrently, the findings of this study is imbued with lots of tremendous theoretical, methodological, and practical implications in the aspect of assessing business success of women entrepreneurs.

6.3.5.1 Theoretical Implications

To start with, the conceptual framework adopted in this study was developed in line with the identified gaps in literature, which were drawn from empirical evidences identified from the previous researches and supported by the two underpinning theories. Specifically, the hypothesized model has been supported and explained from two theoretical perspectives, namely the micro-foundation perspective of the resource-based theory (Barney, et al., 2011; Coff & Kryscynski, 2011; Felin & Foss, 2009), and from the perspective of contingency theory (Woodward, et al., 1965; Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967; Luthans & Stewart, 1977; Hofer, 1975; Luthans, 1973). This study then incorporates culture as a moderator to better explain how entrepreneurial competencies and entrepreneurial orientation influences women entrepreneurs' success. In other words, culture was introduced as a moderator in the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies, entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' business in northwestern Nigeria. Drawing inferences from

the above empirical findings and discussions (see chapter five), this present study has made appreciable theoretical contributions to the existing body of literature, specifically, in the area of women entrepreneurship.

6.3.5.1.1 Additional empirical Evidence in the Domain of Microfoundations Perspective of RBV

This study has advanced another theoretical contribution by providing additional empirical evidences in the domain of micro-foundation perspective of RBV. This micro-foundation perspective of the resource-based theory highlights the critical role of human capabilities in creating a sustained competitive advantage for the firm (Abell, Felin & Foss, 2008; Teece, 2007; Felin & Hesterly, 2007). However, the human capital resources (i.e., individual knowledge, skills, and abilities) strengthens the micro-foundation of the Resource-Based View (Hall, 1993; Coff & Kryscynski, 2011). Hence, this perspective posits that a sustained competitive advantage in business can only be achieved when the entrepreneur possesses high human capital resources and capabilities that are rare, valuable, inimitable, and non-substitutable (Hall, 1993; Barney, 1991).

To empirically validate this assertion, the impact of entrepreneurial competencies and entrepreneurial orientation on business success of women entrepreneurs in northwestern Nigeria have been assessed. Although, most previous studies on entrepreneurial competencies (Mitchelmore & Rowley, 2013; Ahmad et al., 2010; Man et al., 2008), and entrepreneurial orientation (Shehu & Mahmood, 2014; Jabeen & Mahmood, 2014; Fatoki & Oni, 2014) in relation to business success, were carried out at the firm level of analysis, a dearth of literature exist in extant literature, which

looks at this relationship at the micro-foundation level of the individual business owners. This study has therefore addresses this gap by firstly, creating a micro level perspective of the dual entrepreneurial capabilities of competencies and orientation and, secondly, by taking on a holistic perspective of these constructs as a composite variable (Rowe, 2002).

Although, this finding has revealed that one of these two human capabilities (i.e., entrepreneurial orientation) was not positively significant to women entrepreneurs' business success in the context of this study, however, the non-significance of this relationship does not mean that the theory is not appropriate in explaining the relationship. This finding has therefore, opens a gap in literature on micro-enterprise, for future researchers to investigate the level at which entrepreneurial orientation would exert positive influence on business success at the micro-foundation level of women entrepreneurs.

Furthermore, the issue of dimensionality of entrepreneurial orientation has been that of an unending debate. Specifically, Covin and Slevin (1989) have argue that EO is a unidimensional construct whose dimensions covary, whereas, Lumpkin and Dess (1996) are of the view that EO is a multidimensional construct, whose dimensions vary independently of each other. However, report from a meta-analytical study carried out by Rauch et al. (2009) reveal that, out of the 51 studies conducted on entrepreneurial orientation, 37 of these studies considered EO as a unidimensional construct.

Supporting the above line of argument, the individual entrepreneurial orientation (IEO) scale developed by Bolton and Lane (2012) produces a covaried, three EO

dimensions of proactiveness, risk taking and innovativeness, which is measured on a ten-item measurement scale. Whereas, some researchers (Larsen & Korneliusson, 2012; Wang & Yen, 2012) examines EO Construct as multidimensional, recent discoveries reveal that in most contexts, these dimensions move (i.e., covary) together (Bolton, 2012).

This present study, has therefore, further validate the covariance nature of entrepreneurial orientation construct, by testing it empirically at the level of individual entrepreneurial orientation (IEO) of women micro-entrepreneurs in the northwestern geo-political zone of Nigeria. This is in response to the call by Bolton and Lane (2012) for the testing of IEO instrument on entrepreneurs, and in line with Hubbard, Vetter, and Littles (1998) call for publishing of replications with extensions in business research.

6.3.5.1.2 Additional empirical Evidence in the Domain of Contingency Theory

The contingency theory ascribed effectiveness in performance of a firm to both internal and external contingency variables (Rauch et al., 2009; Wang, 2008). The theory focused on how the relationship between organizational factors and performance are influenced by one or more situational or contingent variables (Donaldson, 2001). The theory asserts that success in business is better achieved, when congruence or fit is achieved through a proper alignment of all the necessary organizational variables (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967).

Drawing on existing literature, several studies (see Patel & Conklin, 2012; Chowdhury, 2011; Miller & Toulouse, 1986) on the application of contingency theory, have confirmed that success in business is better achieved when the

necessary organizational variables are properly aligned to achieve congruence or fit (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967).

Aligning the findings of this study to that of previous researchers reveals that the interactional effect of the contingent variable (i.e., culture) with the entrepreneurial actions of entrepreneurial competencies produces congruence or fit, which influenced the business success of women entrepreneurs in the context of the study. On the other hand, the interaction effects of this contingent variable on the entrepreneurial action of entrepreneurial orientation, do not yield congruence or fit as their interaction could not influence business success of the women entrepreneurs.

However, even though congruence or fit with respect to the contingent variable (i.e., culture) and entrepreneurial action (i.e., entrepreneurial orientation) could not be achieved, in the context of this study, this does not mean that the theory is not appropriate in explaining these relationships. The finding therefore opens up another gap in literature on micro enterprises for future researchers to explore by determining the level at which proper alignment of a contextual variable and independent constructs would lead to a congruence or fit that would result in business success.

6.3.5.2 Practical Implications

Looking at the findings of this study from the practical point of view provides an insight into our understanding of how entrepreneurial competencies and entrepreneurial orientation impacts women entrepreneurs' success and how culture interacts with these variables to enhance or influence the independent variables on the dependent variable.

Although, there exist a dearth of studies on women entrepreneurial activities in context of Nigeria (Okpara, 2009), nevertheless, the attention of the few existing ones are focused on drawing comparisons on business performance between genders, or on the institutional and cultural barriers that impedes business success of women entrepreneurs (Agwu & Emeti, 2014; Vossenbergh, 2013; Basil, 2005).

However, while previous researches have failed to yield an appreciable positive impact on women entrepreneurs' success, it is much desired that at this critical point in time, that researchers should focus on how some aspect of human capabilities could exert influence on the business success of women entrepreneurs, giving the high rate of business failure that has characterized the entrepreneurial activities of women folks in Nigeria (Akinfe, 2014; Aremu & Adeyemi, 2011; Akingbolu, 2010). This view is consistent with Gibb's (2005) contention, which shows that the success or failure of any business, especially, at the micro level of operation, is predicated on the entrepreneur, who holds the key positions in the organization.

Furthermore, the findings of this current study will, therefore, be useful to the government and its agencies, for example, the women entrepreneurship development (WED), small and medium enterprises development agency of Nigeria (SMEDAN), women non-governmental organisations (NGOs), policy-makers, business practitioners, academics, as well as business researchers, in the area of formulating vital policies or programmes that could enhance women entrepreneurs' attainment of success in business. It will also help in expanding their knowledge on how the intangible resource of human capabilities can be exploited to enhance success in businesses. This would thereby, result in de-emphasizing the issues of capital

inadequacies and other infrastructural constraints as being the main causes of business failure among women entrepreneurs.

Contrary to the notion of the micro-foundations perspective of RBV, which stressed on the importance of human capital resources in achieving a sustained competitive advantage, the findings of this research indicate that the entrepreneurial orientation of the women's micro entrepreneurs, in the context of this study are poorly developed, if not entirely lacking. As a result of this, government, policy makers, and business practitioners need to educate women entrepreneurs on this strategic behavioural posture in order to strengthen their level of competitiveness and, be able to stem the tides of the high rate of failure that have characterized businesses owned by women entrepreneurs.

Additional measures to be taken by the government or policy makers is the establishment of entrepreneurship development centers (EDCs) in every state in the geo-political zone. The purpose of these centers will serve as training centers for women would-be entrepreneurs, not only in the aspect of skill acquisition programmes, but also in developing their entrepreneurial skills to fully compete in the market place with other competitors. This would equip the women entrepreneurs with the necessary qualities and skills that are needed to succeed as entrepreneurs. This will in turn, changed them from being necessity or 'serial' entrepreneurs, who have been driven into businesses by the 'push-factors', to become opportunity-driven entrepreneurs, who engaged in entrepreneurial activities due to the 'pull-factors' presents by the environment (Bijaoui, 2012; Giacomini, et al., 2011; Orhan & Scott, 2001).

Subsequently, entrepreneurship culture of apprenticeship should be encouraged among the female folks. These apprenticeship programmes can be achieved, through the process of attaching aspiring women entrepreneurs to their fellow established women entrepreneurs in their chosen line of business or career. This form of apprenticeship programme would enables the aspiring women entrepreneurs gain experience and acquired vital skills, which are needed to succeed in their own businesses or ventures (UnLtd, n.d). However, previous studies have shown that having prior experience about a business would positively influence the idea of starting one own business too (Singh, Reynolds, & Muhammad, 2001).

Cognizance of the crucial and pivotal role of women in the family households of African societies, developing an institutional programmes that are geared towards salvaging their businesses, would help increase the income level of the family, reduce their level of poverty through employment generate employment and wealth creation. Importantly, this would lead to an increase in the overall contributions of women to the GDP (Gbandi & Amissah, 2014; Ndumanya, 2013; Buttner & Moore, 1997).

Furthermore, a change in the national educational system of the female folk is desirable towards changing the attitudes of women to education in the geo-political zone. This change in attitudes can be achieved by motivating and promoting girl-child education through the provision of educational incentives that would help increase their level of enrolment and subsequent retention in schools. Through this access to education, the level of women empowerment in the society would be enhanced. This is because, poor educational background and managerial

incompetence have been associated with the failure of women entrepreneurs (Huarng, Mas-Tur, & Yu, 2012).

Although, it is often asserted that acquisition of education is never a prerequisite for successful venture creation, it however, offers individual women entrepreneurs the requisite skills and training, which serves as very critical ingredients to successful entrepreneurship (Irene, 2016). Thus, there is a need for a change in the socio-cultural values that underpins the female stereotype that has makes it difficult for women entrepreneurs to acquire the necessary human capital resources needed to grow and sustain their businesses (Cabrera & Mauricio, 2017).

6.3.5.3 Methodological Implications

This present study is imbued with lots of methodological implications. To start with, the study conceptualizes the studied variables as second-order composite variables of a higher-order modelling structure (Hair et al., 2014; Becker, et al., 2012; Rowe, 2002). Apart from the endogenous variable, which was modeled as a reflective first-order construct, all other variables in the study were modeled as type II, reflective-formative construct of a higher-order structure (Hair et al., 2014; Becker, et al., 2012). This composite modeling of the variables (Rowe, 2002) serves as a major methodological contribution because in many previous studies (Larsen & Korneliussen, 2012; Wang & Yen, 2012), these variables have been conceptualized as multidimensional construct, with each of the dimension of the variables, varying independently to influence business success.

Additionally, it is on record that some researchers have measured these variable concepts hierarchically, by summing up the entire indicators in each of the variable's dimensions into a one composite construct of a reflective first-order (Wetzels et al., 2009). However, this way of conceptualization has been found to ignore the logical sequence, as well as the hierarchical modeling processes of the dimensions of the studied constructs.

Additional this form of bottom-up approach (see Hair et al., 2014) of combining information of several dimensions into a one composite construct may give erroneous result, as every dimension of a construct is meant to measure the composite construct at different level of abstraction. Thus, the way of combining the several indicators of different dimensions into one composite construct has been found to be grossly inappropriate, because it violates the principle of hierarchical modeling of higher-order structure (Becker et al., 2012). Commenting on this issue of misconception in modeling structure, Hair et al. (2012b) reports that about 55.26 percent of the formative models in the previous researches have being erroneously assessed using the reflective model.

Furthermore, as a way of avoiding methodological blunders that had often been made by some of the earlier researchers (see Hair et al., 2012b), this study measures the three exogenous variables (i.e., entrepreneurial competencies, entrepreneurial orientation and culture) as a reflective-formative (i.e., Type II) of a higher-order construct's modeling (Lohmoller, 1989). A repeated-indicator approach (Becker, et al., 2012; Wold, 1982), was employed to estimate the parameters. This procedure is achieved by repeating all the indicators of the first-order's dimensions in the second-

order latent constructs (see Afthanorhan, 2014; Becker *et al.*, 2012; Ringle *et al.*, 2012). By so doing, the weights of the first-order's construct, are being used as the formative indicators of the second-order, as suggested by researchers (Hair *et al.*, 2014; Ringle *et al.*, 2012).

Emerging from this modeling procedures are six dimensions of entrepreneurial competencies, three dimensions of entrepreneurial orientation, and four dimensions of culture. These thirteen dimensions altogether have been found to be absolutely (i.e., in term of their outer loadings) and relatively (i.e., in term of their outer weights) important to measure the three exogenous variables, going by the results of their psychometric properties (see Table 5.9). To this the end, this present study has therefore, contributed methodologically, by dispensing completely, with the whole three exogenous variables (i.e., entrepreneurial competencies, entrepreneurial orientation, and culture), together with their respective dimensions, in a logical and sequential manner, in a modeling procedure which has been found to be rarely employed in the existing literature of entrepreneurship.

Even though this tool of analysis (i.e., PLS-SEM), may seem to have gone against the presumed conventional practices, which are commonly found in some studies involving formative construct, or a complex structural modeling, where a covariance-based structural equation modeling (CB-SEM) have been employed (see Krishnan, 2013; Ismail, 2012; Ahmad *et al.*, 2010), Hair *et al.* (2014, 2011) has suggest that the use of PLS-SEM, is the most appropriate tool of analysis in a complex structural modeling, involving formative constructs with many indicators, as can be found in this present study. This justifies the use of a variance-based (i.e.,

PLS-SEM) as the tool of analysis in this study (Hair et al., 2014; 2011), involving three exogenous variables conceptualized as a composite variable of a higher-order structure. This has helped to reduce the model's complexity, achieve a theoretical parsimony, and improved the predictive ability of the model (Hair et al., 2014; Becker, et al., 2012; Rowe, 2002). Therefore, the use of PLS-SEM tool of analysis in this study has helped to facilitate the determination of relationships among these multiple exogenous constructs, and the application of same, serves as a significant methodological contribution to the study.

Sequel to the above, this study has helped to provide an elaborate ways of evaluating reflective-formative (i.e., type II) of a higher-order construct's modeling. This would help prevent a situation of interpretational confounding (Hair et al., 2014; Becker, et al., 2012), which may occur due to the differing perception between the empirical meaning of latent constructs and its intended meaning (Bainter & Bollen, 2014; Burt, 1976). This study has, by so doing, widen up the horizon of knowledge of assessing a complex structural modeling, which involves the combination of both the formative and reflective latent constructs.

Another methodological implication of this study is concerned with the latent endogenous construct (i.e., business success). However, most studies on the organizational studies have measured success by focusing on the subjective traditional financial measures of business success (e.g., sales turnover, revenue, profitability, market share, employment growth) (Reijonen & Komppula, 2007; Simpson et al., 2004; Greenbank, 2001). However, Suwignjo, Bititci and Carrie (2000) have argued that using this financial system of measuring performance alone

has failed to integrate other factors, which in the today's business world are very critical to business success. These other factors are the non-financial performance measures on which the success of women entrepreneurs in business is measured.

Consistently, some researchers have also argued that although success in hard economic measures are necessary to keep a business going (Alstete, 2008), but some of these researchers have absolutely failed to capture the intrinsic rewards, which often goes with the running of businesses (Jennings & Beaver, 1997). However, research in extant literature has shown that these intrinsic rewards in business are what propel women into engaging in entrepreneurship (Alstete, 2008; Brush & Hisrich, 2000; Buttner, & Moore, 1997). Some of these intrinsic rewards, which manifest in the forms of non-financial indicators of a firm's performance, are the hallmark of women's success in business, and they therefore form the cardinal goal of women in entrepreneurship (Walker & Brown, 2004; Fenwick, & Hutton, 2000). This is because, it is on these set of indicators that women's success in business is being measured.

6.3.6 Limitations and Future Research Directions

Despite the significant contributions of this study to women entrepreneurship literature, either at the theoretical, methodological or practical level, there exist some pockets of limitations, which gives room for suggestions for future researches. However, it has always been the usual norm for any investigative research of this nature to take into consideration, some of these inherent limitations of the study. The essence of such limitations is to provide avenue for future researches in such field of

human endeavour. In line with this consideration, the major identified limitation of this study are as follows.

Firstly, the cross-sectional nature of research design, which entails a one-time collection of data from the population at a single point in time (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013; Bichi 2004; Cavana, et al., 2001). The data used for this study were collected through survey research using questionnaires distributed to women entrepreneurs at a go (i.e., one point in time), and within a period of three months from the selected states of the study. Such a research design was adopted because the study period stipulates a timeframe, within which it must be completed. Hence, future researchers may address this problem of time constraint, by carrying out a longitudinal survey research in which, the survey data would be obtained in two or more periods to draw a favorable comparison between the findings of these two studies. This will make it possible for us to draw an appropriate cause-effect relationship between the variables.

Although, the study has provide justifications for the using exogenous constructs, as composite variables (Rowe, 2002) of a higher order structure (Hair et al., 2014; Becker, 2012), for the purpose of reducing the complexities of the model towards achieving a theoretical parsimony (Hair et al., 2014), it may still be important to investigate how the individual dimension of each construct affect the dependent variable. Hence, this investigation is left for future researchers to determine the intervening effect of each of the dimension of culture on any of the dimension of the dual entrepreneurial capabilities of entrepreneurial competencies and entrepreneurial orientations on women entrepreneurs' business success.

Thirdly, the concept of success of women entrepreneurs, as used in this study was based on assessment of the entrepreneur's psychological characters comprising mainly of the non-financial measures or indicators of business success (Gorgievski, et al., 2011; Dej, 2010). However, while the use of such perceptual measure in assessing business success is often opened to criticisms (Brookings & Serratelli, 2006), some researchers (Santos & Brito, 2012; Rauch et al., 2009) have argued that such subjective measure can serve as a valid and reliable proxies for the objective measure. Although, a dual measure of business success can still be investigated, thus, future researchers could replicate the findings of this study by integrating these two measures of assessing business success.

Fourthly, this study offers quite a limited degree of generalizability because of its sphere of coverage, which revolves around women micro-entrepreneurs, drawn from four selected states in the northwest geopolitical zone of Nigeria. Hence, additional studies is required to by way of extending the study to other women micro-entrepreneurs in other geopolitical zones, which share similar homogenous population characteristics like the one in the states, chosen for this study, in order to be able to generalize its findings. This extension of research, by way of replicative study, will be able to address the limitation sets by the scope of this current study.

Also, the R^2 of the model was only able to explain just 45% of the total variance in of the business success of the women entrepreneurs. This percentage signifies that the remaining 55% of the variance in business success of the women micro-entrepreneurs is explained by other latent exogenous variables, which are not captured in this model. Therefore, future research is needed in which, other latent

exogenous variables would be incorporated to yield additional variance in the women entrepreneurs' business success.

Conclusively, with a non-significant relationship found to exist between entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' success and the failure culture found to moderate this relationship, future research is therefore required to verify, if other variables can be used, in the context of the study, to moderate and strengthen this relationship between individual entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' success.

Nevertheless, a possible level of mediation relationship may probably exist between these constructs. For instance, the possibility of using culture as a mediator in a relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' business success, or in a relationship between entrepreneurial competencies and women entrepreneurs' success may be investigated. Therefore, examining the mediating role of culture on these relationships may be an avenue for further investigation by future researchers because, literature has shown that less attention has been given to the fundamental reasons on why entrepreneurial competencies and individual entrepreneurial orientation predicts the entrepreneur's success in business.

Finally, for deep understanding of the non-significance of individual entrepreneurial orientation in this study, future research may consider a qualitative research in order to have a more in-depth assessment on the issues surrounding its insignificant status. Therefore, incorporating a qualitative research design into future researches will serve as a way of augmenting some inherent deficiencies of quantitative research design, which tends to restrict the opinions of the respondents on the issues under

investigation. However, the use of qualitative method (i.e., interviews) in future researches would provide an in-depth understanding of the relationship between these constructs and help eliminate the barriers to expressions posed by use of structured questionnaire on the respondents, as used in this study.

6.4 Conclusion

From the foregoing discussions, this study has added to the growing body of literature in the field of entrepreneurship by providing evidence on the moderating effect of culture on the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies, entrepreneurial orientation, and women entrepreneurs' business success in Nigeria. In achieving this, two out of the four empirical findings provide support to the four postulated hypotheses of the study. In addition, the study has successfully provided answers to the research questions and objectives despite some of its inherent limitations.

However, while there exists so many studies that have addressed the underlying causes of business success of micro, small and medium enterprises, majority of these studies were carried out as a subjective assessment of the firm's or organizational level of performance. However, this present study addresses this gap in literature by taking a different view of business success, away from the subjective perception of firm performance, to that of the individual business owner of a micro enterprises, as well as incorporating culture as a moderating variable.

Additionally, this study has provided both theoretical and empirical justifications for the moderating effect of culture on the relationship between entrepreneurial competencies, entrepreneurial orientation and women entrepreneurs' success. It has

also, theoretically been able to evaluate the moderating effect of culture on the relationships between the exogenous and endogenous constructs, thereby adding a theoretical framework to the domain of micro-foundations perspective of the resource-based theory of the firm.

In conclusion, the study has provided practical evidences by ways of measuring complex structural modeling involving both the reflective and formative constructs at higher order level of abstraction, using the path modeling techniques (PLS-SEM) of SmartPLS3.0. Hence, the findings of this study is expected to assist in providing a strategic model on how business success can be attained at the level of micro enterprises by affirming the fact that the ultimate success of a business, at this level of operation, rests on the human capabilities of the entrepreneurs, who are the owner-managers.

Apart from proffering future research direction, in line with the identified limitations of the study, the study has added invaluable theoretical, practical, and methodological contributions to the emerging body of knowledge in the field of entrepreneurship and management, specifically, to the domain of women entrepreneurship literature.

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Appendix A Research Questionnaire (English Version)



UUM
Universiti Utara Malaysia

QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear respondent,

I am a doctoral student in the School of Business Management, College of Business, Universiti Utara Malaysia, and currently undertaking a research on the topic titled: *The moderating effect of Culture on the Relationship between Entrepreneurial Competencies, Entrepreneurial Orientation, and Women Entrepreneurs' Business Success in Northwestern Nigeria*. I am hereby, inviting you to participate in this research by providing an objective and sincere answer to each of the itemized question, asked in the subsequent sections by circling (o) or ticking ((√)) the right option as it applies to you, from the list of available options provided on the Likert Scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree, as shown in front of each question. There is no right or wrong answer to each of the question. The aim of the research is for pure academic purposes and every information provided would be treated with full confidential. Your full cooperation would be highly appreciated in this regard. Thanking you in anticipation of your prompt response.

Yours sincerely,

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Section A: Demographic characteristics of the respondents

Age

- i. Below 20 years ()
- ii. 21 to 30 years ()
- iii. 31 to 40 years ()
- iv. 41 to 50 years ()
- v. Above 50 years ()

Educational qualifications

- i. No formal education ()
- ii. Primary/Secondary School ()
- iii. NCE/OND ()
- iv. HND/Degree ()
- v. Master Degree ()
- vi. PhD ()

Marital Status

- (i) Single ()
- (ii) Married ()
- (iii) Divorcee ()
- (iv) Widow ()

Location of the Business

- i. Home based ()
- ii. External ()

Years of operation

- i. 3 years and below ()
- ii. 4 to 6 years ()
- iii. 7 to 9 years ()
- iv. 10 years and above ()

Section B: Entrepreneurial Success

The followings are the non-financial measures of entrepreneurial success. Kindly read carefully and indicate your choice by circling (o) or ticking ((√)) the number that represent the degree of importance you attached to each of the statement in the table below. There is no right or wrong answers, we only need your opinion. Where SD (Strongly Disagree), D (Disagree), N (Neutral), A (Agree), and SA (Strongly Agree).

S/N	Items	SD	D	N	A	SA
ESC1	I derive personal satisfaction in what I am doing	1	2	3	4	5
ESC2	I am able to control my business	1	2	3	4	5
ESC3	I am able to balance work and family	1	2	3	4	5
ESC4	I have satisfied customers	1	2	3	4	5

ESC5	I feel I am running a successful business	1	2	3	4	5
	My personal satisfaction is more of important than making lots of					
ESC6	money	1	2	3	4	5
	Having pride in my job is more of importance than making lots of					
ESC7	money	1	2	3	4	5
ESC8	I am as ambitious now as when I first start the business	1	2	3	4	5
ESC9	Given job to people gives me great personal satisfaction	1	2	3	4	5
ESC10	Having a flexible lifestyle is more important than making lots of money	1	2	3	4	5
ESC11	Being my own boss gives more personal satisfaction	1	2	3	4	5

Section C: Entrepreneurial Competencies

The followings are the competencies that may be necessary to successful run your business. Kindly read carefully and indicate your choice by circling (o) or ticking (√) the number that represent the degree of importance you attached to each of the statement in the table below. There is no right or wrong answers, we only need your opinion. Where SD (Strongly Disagree), D (Disagree), N (Neutral), A (Agree), and SA (Strongly Agree).

S/N	Items	SD	D	N	A	SA
Strategic						
ESG1	I determine long term issues, problems or opportunities of my business.	1	2	3	4	5
ESG2	I am aware of the projected directions of the industry and how changes might impact on my business.	1	2	3	4	5
ESG3	I prioritize works in alignment with my business goals.	1	2	3	4	5
ESG4	I redesign my business to better meet long term objectives and changes.	1	2	3	4	5
ESG5	I align current actions with my strategic goals	1	2	3	4	5
ESG6	I assess and link short-term, day-to-day tasks in the context of long-term direction	1	2	3	4	5
ESG7	I monitor the business progress towards its strategic goals	1	2	3	4	5
ESG8	I evaluate business results against the strategic goals	1	2	3	4	5
ESG9	I determine strategic actions by weighing the costs and benefits	1	2	3	4	5
Commitment						
ECM1	I am dedicated to make the business work	1	2	3	4	5
ECM2	I refuse to let the business fail	1	2	3	4	5

ECM3	I have an extremely strong internal drive	1	2	3	4	5
ECM4	I am committed to long term business goals	1	2	3	4	5
Conceptual						
ECP1	I take reasonable job-related risks.	1	2	3	4	5
ECP2	I monitor progress towards objectives in risky actions.	1	2	3	4	5
ECP3	I look at old problems in new ways.	1	2	3	4	5
ECP4	I explore new ideas.	1	2	3	4	5
ECP5	I treat new problems as opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5
ECP6	I understand the broader implications of issues and observations.	1	2	3	4	5
ECP7	I am able to translate ideas and observations into the business context.	1	2	3	4	5
Opportunity						
EPT1	I identify good and services based on customers wants	1	2	3	4	5
EPT2	I can perceived the unmet customer needs	1	2	3	4	5
EPT3	I actively look for products or services that provide real benefit to customers	1	2	3	4	5
EPT4	I try to grab high-quality business opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
Organising						
EGZ1	I plan the operations of the business	1	2	3	4	5
EGZ2	I plan the organisation of different resources	1	2	3	4	5
EGZ3	I keep the organisation running smoothly	1	2	3	4	5
EGZ4	I organise resources (employees, machines, money, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
EGZ5	I coordinate tasks	1	2	3	4	5
EGZ6	I supervise subordinates	1	2	3	4	5
EGZ7	I organise my employees/people	1	2	3	4	5
EGZ8	I lead my subordinates	1	2	3	4	5
EGZ9	I motivate my employees/people	1	2	3	4	5
EGZ10	I delegate effectively	1	2	3	4	5
Relationship						
ERP1	I develop long-term trusting relationships with others	1	2	3	4	5
ERP2	I negotiate with others in the course of my business	1	2	3	4	5
ERP3	I interact with others in the course of my business	1	2	3	4	5
ERP4	I maintain personal network of work contacts	1	2	3	4	5
ERP5	I communicate with others effectively	1	2	3	4	5

Section D; Entrepreneurial Orientation

The followings are the entrepreneurial orientation that may be necessary to successful run your business. Kindly read carefully and indicate your choice by circling (o) or ticking ((√)) the number that represent the degree of importance you to each of the statement in in the table below. There is no right or wrong answers, we only need your opinion. Where SD (Strongly Disagreed), D (Disagree), N (Neutral), A (Agree), and SA (Strongly Agree)

S/N	Items	SD	D	N	A	SA
ERT1	I like to take bold action by venturing into the unknown	1	2	3	4	5
ERT2	I am willing to invest a lot of my time and/or money on something that might yield high returns.	1	2	3	4	5
ERT3	I tend to act "boldly" in situation where risk is involved.	1	2	3	4	5
ENV1	I often like to try new and unusual activities that are not typical but not necessarily risky.	1	2	3	4	5
ENV2	In general, I prefer a strong emphasis in projects of unique, one-of-a kind approaches, rather than revisiting tried and true approaches used before.	1	2	3	4	5
ENV3	I prefer to try my own unique way when learning new things rather than doing it like everyone does	1	2	3	4	5
ENV4	I favour experimentation and original approach to problem solving rather than using methods others generally use to solve their problems	1	2	3	4	5
EPR1	I usually act in anticipation of future problems, needs or changes	1	2	3	4	5
EPR2	I tend to plan ahead on projects.	1	2	3	4	5
EPR3	I prefer to step-up and get things going on projects rather than sit and wait for someone else to do it.	1	2	3	4	5

Section E: Culture

The followings are the items of culture that may be necessary to successful run your business. Kindly read carefully and indicate your choice by circling (o) or ticking ((√)) the number that represent the degree of importance you to each of the statement in in the table below. There is no right or wrong answers, we only need your opinion. Where SD (Strongly Disagreed), D (Disagree), N (Neutral), A (Agree), and SA (Strongly Agree)

S/N	Items	SD	D	N	A	SA
CIC1	The welfare of my work group is more important than my personal rewards	1	2	3	4	5
CIC2	The success of my work group is more important than my personal success	1	2	3	4	5
CIC3	Being accepted by members of my work group is very important.	1	2	3	4	5
CIC4	Employees should only pursue their goals after considering the welfare of their work group.	1	2	3	4	5

CIC5	Owners should encourage work group loyalty even if their individual goals suffers	1	2	3	4	5
CIC6	Owners should give up their goal in order to benefit their work group success.	1	2	3	4	5
CUA1	Owners expect employees to closely follow instructions and procedures.	1	2	3	4	5
CUA2	It is good to have rules and regulations because it will guide employees on what to do.	1	2	3	4	5
CUA3	Standard operating procedures are helpful to employees on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
CUA4	Instructions for operations are important for my employees.	1	2	3	4	5
CUA5	It is important to have job requirements and instructions spelt out in detail so that my employees know what they are expected to do.	1	2	3	4	5
CMF1	Meetings are usually more effectively run when they chaired by men.	1	2	3	4	5
CMF2	It is more important for men to have a professional career than it is for women.	1	2	3	4	5
CMF3	Men usually solve problems with logical analysis, while women usually solve problems with intuition.	1	2	3	4	5
CMF4	An active forcible approach, which is typical of men, is usually require to solve organizational problems.	1	2	3	4	5
CMF5	It is more preferable to have a man in a high level position rather than having a woman	1	2	3	4	5
CPD1	Owners should make most decisions without consulting their employees.	1	2	3	4	5
CPD2	It is necessary for managers to use authority and power when dealing with their employees.	1	2	3	4	5
CPD3	Owners should avoid seeking opinion from their employees	1	2	3	4	5
CPD4	Owners should avoid off-the-job social contact with their employees.	1	2	3	4	5
CPD5	Employees should not disagree with the management decisions	1	2	3	4	5
CPD6	Owners should not delegate important task to their employees.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix B

Research Questionnaire (Hausa Version)



UUM
Universiti Utara Malaysia

Takarda Tambayoyi

Girmamawa a Gareki,

Ni dalibi ne mai karatun digri na uku (PhD) a Makarantar nazarin yadda ake tafiyar da Kasuwanci, daka Kwalejin Koyar da Kasuwanci, Jami'ar Utara Malaysia, a halin yanzu ina gudanar da wani bincike a kan wani batu mai taken:

“Sakamako na Al'adu a kan Dangantakar dake Tsakanin Harkokin Gogewar a Kasuwanci, Harkokin Fuskantarwa a Kasuwanci, da Nasara a harkokin Kasuwanci Mata Arewa maso yammacin Nigeria”. Ina kira gare ki da ki shiga a wannan bincike da samar da wani bayani kuma amsa kowane daga cikin tambayar da aka tambaye ki a cikin sassan da ciki ta hanyar saka kewaye (o) ko maki (✓) da hakkin wani zaɓi kamar yadda ya shafe ku, daga jerin tsarin da aka samar ta hanyar yarda ko rashin yarda, kamar yadda aka nu na a gaban kowace tambaya. Babu dama ko ba dai dai ba ne a amsa ga kowane daga cikin tambaya a layi daya. Manufar bincike shi ne samar da bayanai masu gamsarwa, a fagen ilmi tare da tabbacin amfani da bayanana da kuka samar a cikin sirri. Ina fatar samun hadin kanku da goyon baya a wannan fage.

Wassalam,

Nine naku,

Salaudeen Nuraini Hashimu

+60167907085, +2348038762067

E-mail: salaudeennuraini@gmail.com

Masu dubawa

Dr. Muhammad Shukri Bakar

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Prof. (Dr.) Rosli B. Mahmood

E-mail: rosli@uum.edu.my

Sashe A: Bayani akan mai amsa tambayoyi**Shakaru**

- i. Kasa da shekara 20 ()
- ii. 21 to 30 years ()
- iii. 31 to 40 years ()
- iv. 41 to 50 years ()
- v. Above 50 years ()

Matakin ilimi

- i. Baki halarci makarantar boko ba ()
- ii. Primary/Secondary School ()
- iii. NCE/OND ()
- iv. HND/Degree ()
- v. Master Degree ()
- vi. PhD ()

Matsayin Aure

- i. Budurwa/Single ()
- ii. Mata Aure/Married ()
- iii. Bazawara/divorcee ()
- iv. Bazawara/widow ()

Wurin Kasuwanchi

- i. Na gida ()
- ii. Na waje ()

Shekarun da aka fara kasuwanchi

- i. Shekar 3 ko kasa da shekara 3 ()
- ii. 4 to 6 years ()
- iii. 7 to 9 years ()
- iv. 10 years and above ()

Lambar Ma'iakata

.....

Wane irin kasuwanchi da kike yi

.....

Sashe B: Nasara ga Harkokin Kasuwanci

Ababen da suka biyo sun kunshi bayana matakan da kike amfani da su wajen samu nasara tafiyar da kasuwanci wadan da basu shafi kudi ba wanda zai iya zama wajibi ne don samu nasara ga kasuwanci nki. Ki karanta a hankali ki kuma nuna zabi nki ta hanyar maka lambar da ta dace da ra'ayinki a cikin teburin da aka tsara. Kar kiyi amfani da abinda ba ra'ayinki ba. A kwai alamomin da akayi amfani dasu don nuna ra'ayinki kamar haka: SD (sam ban amince ba), D (Ban amince ba), N (baruwana), A (Na amince), da kuma SA (Na amince sosai)

S/N	Abubuwar	SD	D	N	A	SA
ESC1	Ina samun gamsuwa da abin da nake yi.	1	2	3	4	5
ESC2	Ina da ikon tafiyada lamuran kasuwanchi na	1	2	3	4	5
ESC3	Ina da ikon daidaitawa a ssannanoni kasuwanci na da na iyali	1	2	3	4	5
ESC4	Ina da mukeji da abokan ciniki da ke nuna gamsuwa da huldana	1	2	3	4	5

ESC5	Ina gudanar da kasuwanci na cikin nasara	1	2	3	4	5
ESC6	Gamsuwa ta itace mafi muhimmanci agareku fiye da in tara kudi	1	2	3	4	5
ESC7	Samun girman na a cikin kasuwanchi shine mafi muhimmanci fiye da kudi.	1	2	3	4	5
ESC8	Nafi sa guri ga kasuwanchi na yanzu fiye da can farko	1	2	3	4	5
ESC9	Daukar mutane aiki a karkashi na shine gamsuwa ta	1	2	3	4	5
ESC10	Samun salon iya huldar kasuwanci shi ne mafi muhimmanci fiye da tara dukiya.	1	2	3	4	5
ESC11	Kasancewa ta maicin gashin kai na shi ne samun gamsuwar ta.	1	2	3	4	5

Sashe C: Gogewa ga Harkokin Kasuwanci

Ababen da suka biyo sune na gogewar ki ga harkokin kasuwanci wanda zai iya zama wajibi ne don samu nasara ga kasuwanci nki. Ki karanta a hankali da kuma nuna zabi nki ta hanyar nuna lambar da ta dace da ra'ayinki a cikin teburin da aka tsara. Kar kiya amfani da abinda ba ra'ayinki ba. A kwai alamomin da akayi amfani dasu don nuna ra'ayinki kamar haka: SD (sam ban amince ba), D (Ban amince ba), N (baruwana), A (Na amince), da kuma SA (Na amince sosai).

S/N	Abubuwa	SD	D	N	A	SA
Dabaru						
ESG1	Na kayyade tsawon lokacin al'amurran da suka shafi, matsaloli ko damar da ke iya turgowa.	1	2	3	4	5
ESG2	Ina sane da inda masana'anta ta fuskanta, a cikin masa'antu da kuma yadda canje-canje ke tasiri a cikin kasuwanci na.	1	2	3	4	5
ESG3	Na bada muhimmanci ga aiki ta yadda zai dace ga samun nasarori da na sanya a gaba	1	2	3	4	5
ESG4	Na tsara kasuwanci na don ya cimma manufofin masu nisa da na sa a gaba.	1	2	3	4	5
ESG5	Na tsara sababbin dabaru do su da ce da doganyen manufofin kasuwanci na.	1	2	3	4	5
ESG6	Na tantance da kuma danganta gajere manufofi nay au da kullum don su da ce da manufofin kasuwanci na.	1	2	3	4	5
ESG7	Na saka idanu don ganin cin gaban dabarun da na sa a gaba.	1	2	3	4	5
ESG8	Ina kimanta sakamakon dabarun kasuwanci da na sa a gaba.	1	2	3	4	5
ESG9	Na kayyade dabarun aiki ta yin la'akari da halin riba da kuma amfanin da zan iya samu.	1	2	3	4	5
Nacewa						
ECM1	Ina sadaukar da kaina domin yin aikin kasuwanci na.	1	2	3	4	5
ECM2	Na ki barin kasuwanci na tabarbare.	1	2	3	4	5
ECM3	Ina da wani karfi na musamman na tafiyar da kasuwanci na.	1	2	3	4	5
ECM4	Ina aikata duk abinda ya dace don cimma dogoyen manufofin kasuwanci na.	1	2	3	4	5
Ra'ayi na						
ECP1	Nakan dauki kasadar da ke da alaka da kasuwanci na.	1	2	3	4	5

ECP2	Na saka idanu don samu ci gaba zuwa manufofin da ke da kasada a cikin kasuwanci na.	1	2	3	4	5
ECP3	Na dubi tsoffin matsaloli ta sababbin hanyoyi.	1	2	3	4	5
ECP4	Na gano sababbin dabaru.	1	2	3	4	5
ECP5	Na kan bibiyi sababbin matsaloli da damar da na ke da ita.	1	2	3	4	5
ECP6	Na fahimci da al'amuran da ke bukatar natsuwa da lura.	1	2	3	4	5
ECP7	Ina iya fassara ra'ayoyi da lura a cikin kasuwanci na.	1	2	3	4	5
Dama						
EPT1	Na gane da kaya da kuma ayyuka kyawawa bisa ga bukatar abokan ciniki na.	1	2	3	4	5
EPT2	Zan iya gane abinda abokin ciniki na ke bukata.	1	2	3	4	5
EPT3	Na rayayye nemi kayayyakin ko ayyuka da samar da hakikanin amfani ga abokan ciniki.	1	2	3	4	5
EPT4	Ina kokarin samar hanyoyin da sazu kawo habaka ga kasuwanci na.	1	2	3	4	5
Tsarawa						
EGZ1	Na tsara hanyoyin gudanar da kasuwanci na.	1	2	3	4	5
EGZ2	Na tsaro ababe da dama da za su samar da ci gaban kasuwanci na.	1	2	3	4	5
EGZ3	Na tabbatar da cewa kasuwanci nan a gudana kamar yadda na tsara.	1	2	3	4	5
EGZ4	Na shirya kayan aiki da zan yi amfani dasu kamar (ma'aikata, injin, kudi, da dai sauransu).	1	2	3	4	5
EGZ5	Na tsara ayyuka kasuwanci na.	1	2	3	4	5
EGZ6	Na kan kula da aikin da ma'aikata na ke gudanarwa.	1	2	3	4	5
EGZ7	Na shirya ma'aikata na don yin aiki.	1	2	3	4	5
EGZ8	Na kan jagoranci ma'aikata na.	1	2	3	4	5
EGZ9	Na kan karfafa guiwar ma'aikata na.	1	2	3	4	5
EGZ10	Na ka rarraba aiki ga ma'aikata na kamar yadda ya kamata.	1	2	3	4	5
Dangantaka						
ERP1	Na samar da dangantaka mai kyau da mutane na.	1	2	3	4	5
ERP2	Na kan yi shawara da mutane akan harakar kasuwanci na.	1	2	3	4	5
ERP3	Na kan yi hulɗa tare da wasu a cikin kasuwanci na.	1	2	3	4	5
ERP4	Na tsare tuntubar abokan hujda ta don jawo su ga jiki na.	1	2	3	4	5
ERP5	Na kan tuntubi aboka kasuwanci na yadda ya kamata.	1	2	3	4	5

Sashe D: Fuskantarwa akan Harkokin Kasuwanci

Ababe da su ka biyo sune na fuskantarwa akan harkokin kasuwanci wanda zai iya zama wajibi ne don samu nasara ga kasuwanci nki. Ki karanta a hankali da kuma nuna zabi nki ta hanyar maka lambar da ta dace da ra'ayinki a cikin teburin da aka tsara. Kar kiya amfani da abinda ba ra'ayinki ba. A kwai

alamomin da akayi amfani dasu don nuna ra'ayinki kamar haka: SD (sam ban amince ba), D (Ban amince ba), N (baruwana), A (Na amince), da kuma SA (Na amince sosai).

S/N	Abubuwa	SD	D	N	A	SA
ERT1	Ina daukar kasada ta shiga kasuwanci da ba ni da tabbacin.	1	2	3	4	5
ERT2	Na yarda da zuba jari mai yawa da lokaci ko kudi a kan wani abu da zai kawo riba mai yawa.	1	2	3	4	5
ERT3	Ina kokarin daukar mataki ga ababen da ke da kasada.	1	2	3	4	5
ENV1	Sau da yawa ina gwada sabin da m ayyukan da suke ba hali amma ba dole ba ne su kansance masu kasada ba.	1	2	3	4	5
ENV2	A gabadaya, na fi son mai karfi girmamawa a kan musamman, daya-daga-a irin, maimakon revisiting kokarin da gaskiya fuskanci amfani da.	1	2	3	4	5
ENV3	Na fi so in gwada kaina musamman a lokacin koyon sabon abu, maimakon yin shi ta hanyar kwaikwaya.	1	2	3	4	5
ENV4	Na yarda da gwada abubuwa da kula da usulin matsala da warware ta maimakon yin amfani da hanyoyin d wasu ke amfani da su wajen magance matsalolin.	1	2	3	4	5
EPR1	Yawancin lokaci, ina daukar mataakai akan matsaloli, ko bukatun, ko canje-canjen da ke tuskowa.	1	2	3	4	5
EPR2	Na kan tsara abubuwa kafin lokacin ya yi.	1	2	3	4	5
EPR3	Na fi so in dauki mataki na gani cewa abubuwa na faruwa maimakon jira wani ya aikata mani wannan abin.	1	2	3	4	5

Sashe E: Al'adu

Ababen da suka biyo sune abubuwa na al'adu wanda zai iya zama wajibi ne don samu nasara ga kasuwanci nki. Ki karanta a hankali da kuma nuna zabi nki ta hanyar maka lambar da ta dace da ra'ayinki a cikin teburin da aka tsara. Kar kiyi amfani da abinda ba ra'ayinki ba. A kwai alamomin da akayi amfani dasu don nuna ra'ayinki kamar haka: SD (sam ban amince ba), D (Ban amince ba), N (baruwana), A (Na amince), da kuma SA (Na amince sosai).

S/N	Abubuwa	SD	D	N	A	SA
CIC1	Jin dadin ma'aikata na shine burin da na sa'a gaba fiye da jin dadi na.	1	2	3	4	5
CIC2	Yin nasarar ma'aikatana shine burin da na sa'a gaba fiye da yin nasara na	1	2	3	4	5
CIC3	Abu mai muhimmanci a gare ni shi ne in samu karbuwa ga ma'aikata na.	1	2	3	4	5
CIC4	Ya ka mata ma'aikata na su kiyaye da jin dadi su kafin na abokan aikinn su.	1	2	3	4	5
CIC5	Ma su gudanar jagoranci kasuwanci su tabbatar da hadin kan ma'aikatan su, ko da abin zai shafi na su bakatu.	1	2	3	4	5
CIC6	Ya kamata yan kasuwa ya daina burin domin amfana da nasara ma'aikata.	1	2	3	4	5
CUA1	Ina sa ran ma'aikata na a hankali su bi umurnin da hanyoyin da aka tsara.	1	2	3	4	5

CUA2	Yana da kyau a yi dokoki da ka'idoji domin shi ne zai shirya da ma'aikata a kan abin da ce.	1	2	3	4	5
CUA3	Fitatun ka'idodi aiki su ne masu taimakawa ma'aikata a kan aiki.	1	2	3	4	5
CUA4	Umunni na gudanar aiki na da muhimmanci ga ma'aikata na.	1	2	3	4	5
CUA5	Yana da muhimmanci a yi aiki da bukata da umurnin da aka tsara daga cikin daki-daki dōmin ma'aikata su san abin da ake sa ran su yi.	1	2	3	4	5
CMF1	Tarurruka yawanci more yadda ya kamata gudu a lōkacin da suka jagoranci da maza.	1	2	3	4	5
CMF2	Yan a da muhimmanci ga maza su sami kwararren aiki fiye da mata.	1	2	3	4	5
CMF3	Maza yawanci suna warware matsaloli tare da tunani mai ma'ana, alhali kuwa mata suna warware matsaloli nsu batare da dogon nazari ba.	1	2	3	4	5
CMF4	Daukar mataki kai tsaye shine halin maza, kuma shine ake bukata wajen warware matsalolin a wurin aiki.	1	2	3	4	5
CMF5	Yafi kyau a samu maza da babban matsayi fiye da mata.	1	2	3	4	5
CPD1	Ya kamata yan kasuwa su yi amfani da karfin mulki don yanke shawara ba tare da tuntubar ma'aikata ba.	1	2	3	4	5
CPD2	Wajibi ne ga yan kasuwa su yi amfani da ikon da suke da shi a lokacin hukunta ma'aikata nsu.	1	2	3	4	5
CPD3	Ya kamata yan kasuwa su kauce neman ra'ayi daga ma'aikata su.	1	2	3	4	5
CPD4	Yakamata yan kasuwa su kauce wa tuntubar ma'aikatansu in ba lokacin aiki ba.	1	2	3	4	5
CPD45	Ya kamata ma'aikata su yi amfani da dokokin aiki.	1	2	3	4	5
CPD6	Kada yan kasuwa su wakilta ma'aikata ga aiki mafi muhimmanci.	1	2	3	4	5

Na gode maki ga damar da kika bani na amsar wannan tambayoyi.

Appendix C

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	18.007	21.960	21.960	18.007	21.960	21.960
2	4.877	5.948	27.908	4.877	5.948	27.908
3	3.239	3.950	31.858	3.239	3.950	31.858
4	2.347	2.863	34.720	2.347	2.863	34.720
5	2.312	2.819	37.540	2.312	2.819	37.540
6	2.201	2.684	40.224	2.201	2.684	40.224
7	2.017	2.460	42.684	2.017	2.460	42.684
8	1.846	2.251	44.935	1.846	2.251	44.935
9	1.783	2.175	47.110	1.783	2.175	47.110
10	1.641	2.002	49.111	1.641	2.002	49.111
11	1.592	1.942	51.053	1.592	1.942	51.053
12	1.471	1.794	52.847	1.471	1.794	52.847
13	1.420	1.731	54.578	1.420	1.731	54.578
14	1.360	1.659	56.237	1.360	1.659	56.237
15	1.320	1.610	57.846	1.320	1.610	57.846
16	1.234	1.505	59.351	1.234	1.505	59.351
17	1.196	1.459	60.810	1.196	1.459	60.810
18	1.142	1.393	62.203	1.142	1.393	62.203
19	1.114	1.359	63.562	1.114	1.359	63.562
20	1.059	1.291	64.853	1.059	1.291	64.853
21	1.040	1.269	66.122	1.040	1.269	66.122
22	1.000	1.220	67.341	1.000	1.220	67.341
23	.981	1.197	68.538			
24	.928	1.132	69.670			
25	.890	1.085	70.755			
26	.864	1.054	71.809			
27	.827	1.009	72.818			
28	.816	.995	73.813			
29	.771	.940	74.753			
30	.767	.936	75.688			
31	.751	.916	76.604			
32	.729	.889	77.493			

33	.693	.845	78.338
34	.689	.840	79.177
35	.665	.811	79.989
36	.660	.805	80.794
37	.637	.776	81.570
38	.625	.763	82.333
39	.609	.743	83.076
40	.584	.712	83.787
41	.582	.710	84.498
42	.553	.675	85.172
43	.513	.626	85.798
44	.499	.608	86.406
45	.495	.603	87.010
46	.480	.586	87.595
47	.470	.574	88.169
48	.469	.572	88.741
49	.449	.548	89.289
50	.439	.536	89.825
51	.427	.521	90.345
52	.419	.511	90.857
53	.414	.504	91.361
54	.384	.468	91.829
55	.370	.451	92.280
56	.361	.441	92.721
57	.357	.435	93.156
58	.338	.413	93.568
59	.327	.399	93.967
60	.315	.384	94.351
61	.306	.373	94.724
62	.303	.369	95.093
63	.290	.353	95.446
64	.281	.342	95.788
65	.273	.333	96.121
66	.264	.321	96.442
67	.249	.304	96.746
68	.241	.294	97.040
69	.237	.289	97.329
70	.220	.268	97.597

71	.213	.260	97.857			
72	.210	.256	98.113			
73	.203	.247	98.361			
74	.194	.236	98.597			
75	.182	.222	98.819			
76	.169	.206	99.025			
77	.164	.200	99.226			
78	.139	.170	99.396			
79	.137	.167	99.563			
80	.132	.161	99.724			
81	.122	.149	99.873			
82	.104	.127	100.000			

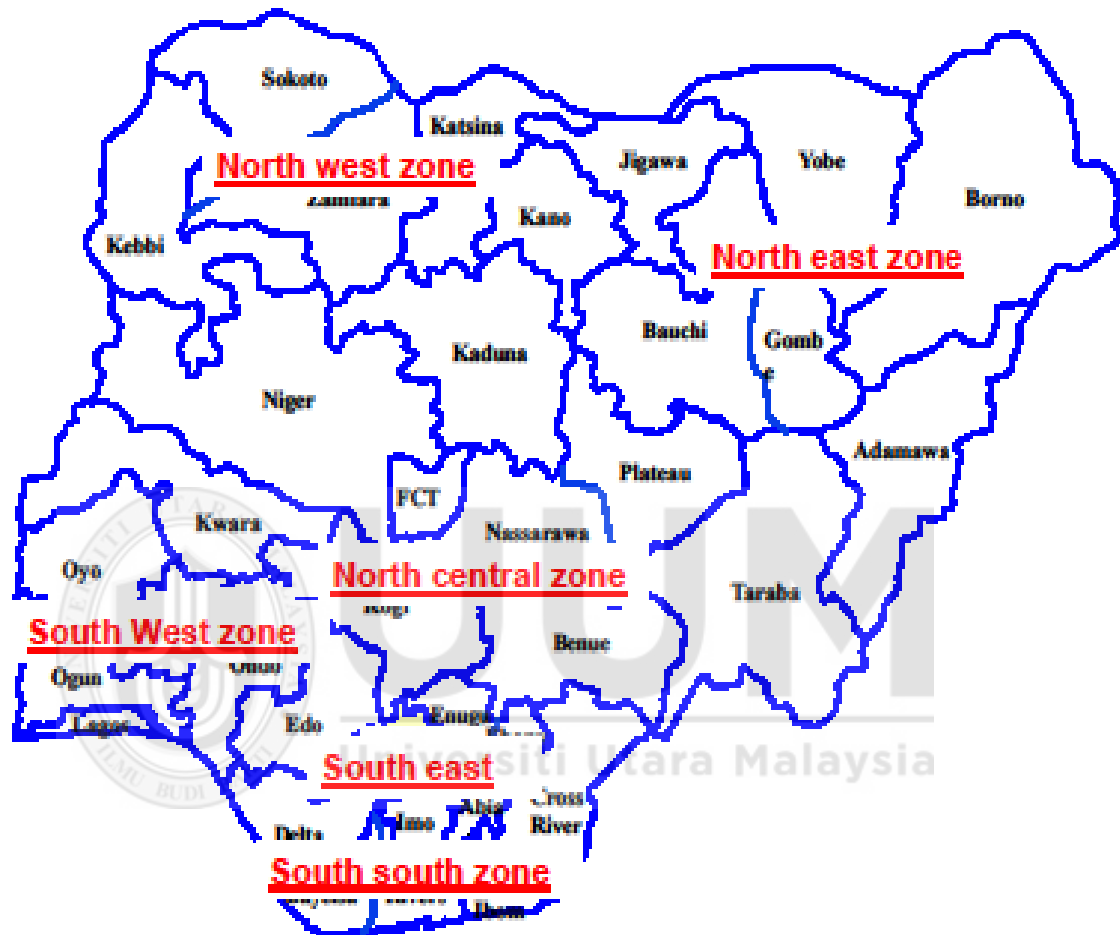
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.



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Appendix D

Map of Nigeria Showing the Six Geo-political Zones



Appendix E

Measurement Instrument Validation

List Experts that Validate the Research Instrument

(i). Dr Abdullah Hassan Gorondutshe

College of Business,

Universiti Utara Malaysia.

UUM Sintok, Malaysia.

(ii). Dr Salisu Isyaku Tsauri

Entrepreneurship Development Center,

Umaru Musa Yar'adua University,

Katsina, Nigeria.

(iii). Dr Muhammed Nura Ibrahim Naala

Department Of Business Management,

Federal Polytechnic,

Kaura Namoda,

Zamfara, Nigeria

